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REVIEW OF POLITICS.

THOSE who care for the progress of constitutional principles, and the establishment of constitutional institutions, must follow with considerable interest the proceedings of the Austrian Reichsrath. The independent members of that body labour under no ordinary difficulties. They have to encounter the weight both of ancient tradition and of present embarrassment. Although nominally the representatives of an empire, they are in fact only the deputies of a province. They have to gain and exercise power and influence in the face of circumstances which would furnish the emperor with a plausible justification for claiming autocratic rule over the discordant nationalities, whose only bond of union is the imperial crown. They derive no moral support from any other German parliament; for although that of Prussia started under the fairest auspices, and had to contend with no difficulties which might not have been overcome by average courage and firmness, it has for some time ceased to excite either the apprehensions of M. von Bismarck, or the respect of any one else. The representative body, which meets now and then at Berlin, in order to do a little useless talk and then undergo a contemptuous prorogation, is really too insignificant an assembly for praise or blame;—it is the subject neither of hope nor disappointment. But the Austrian parliament manifests real independence of spirit, and is evidently bent upon making itself a substantial power in the state. During the debates on the Address, the policy of the Government has been freely criticised, and the financial condition of the empire has been exposed without reserve. Even in regard to Italy, there have not been wanting those who have ventured to speak in a sense very hostile to the prejudices of the Court, and, perhaps, of the people also. The recognition of that kingdom has been openly advocated, and Austria has been warned that it is time she should cast aside the traditions of absolutism. Without laying undue stress upon the speeches of private members, we cannot help thinking that the freedom which has characterised the recent discussions in this Assembly is a favourable symptom. It appears to show that the Austrians are determined to make representative institutions a reality, and that the Emperor is not indisposed to listen to the voice of Truth. We shall watch with anxiety the practical measures by which the Reichsrath may enforce its views. It is quite possible that the performance may not be equal to the promise. But in the mean time it would be unjust not to recognise the healthy tone which breathes through the Address to the Crown, and through the debates of which it has furnished the text.

The death of M. Mocquard is not strictly a political

event; for the secretary of the Emperor Napoleon was not ostensibly a political personage. Still it is impossible to doubt that he possessed considerable influence with the master whom he served so faithfully; and in that point of view his disappearance from the scene is not without importance. The sincerity of many eminent Bonapartists is the subject of just suspicion. But none can be entertained as to the good faith of M. Mocquard. During the reign of Louis Philippe, if not earlier, he was a devoted adherent of the present Emperor. Even when the abortive attempt at Boulogne had for a time covered Prince Louis Napoleon with ridicule, M. Mocquard was faithful to his cause. It is understood that he was more or less implicated in all the Bonapartist plots since 1840; and it is certain that he was from the first one of the most active promoters of the *coup-d'état* of the 2nd of December. Although his abilities were probably not of a very high order, he had many qualities which rendered him extremely useful to his imperial master and friend. There must be many a skeleton in the cupboards of the Tuileries, and the present occupant of that palace will sorely miss the thoroughly trustworthy confidant, who knew their whereabouts and the best means of preventing any disagreeable exposure. It will be impossible to supply his place, and difficult to find even a tolerable successor in so confidential a post. Nor can the Emperor see without some anxiety the gaps which death is making in the ranks of those who are the stoutest and most steadfast supporters of his throne. During the present year he has lost Billault, Pelissier, and Mocquard,—the ablest parliamentary tactician and orator whose services he has ever enlisted, one of his stoutest soldiers, and the head of his private cabinet. Has he succeeded in conciliating the hearty support of any who are competent to take their places? Does Napoleonism attract to its standard the ablest and the most cultivated intellects of France? Is it not the case that after twelve years of power the Emperor constantly finds himself driven to the use of an inferior, and still more inferior class of instruments? These questions can hardly be answered favourably. But an unfavourable reply suggests grave doubts whether the Second Empire is striking any very deep roots into French society.

The *Times* and the Conservative journals have endeavoured, as it seems to us very unsuccessfully, to "pooh, pooh" the great Reform Meeting held at Bradford towards the end of last week. It may be true that neither the speakers nor the audience had made up their minds very clearly as to the precise measure they had in view. But this does not cast any legitimate doubt upon the perfect sincerity and earnestness of their conviction that Parliamentary Reform is necessary. Nor, indeed, did they leave us in any doubt as to the direction which they desire that it should take. An

extension of the franchise and a redistribution of seats are the cardinal points upon which they insist; and although it is easy to say that nobody in "good society" cares for any alteration in the present system, it is at least a significant fact that within a very short time more than one large meeting in the Northern towns has affirmed that their long-headed and persevering populations are of a different opinion. So long as the rising agitation for Reform was confined to Lancashire there was some plausibility in the suggestion that it was due rather to organization, than to the spontaneous movement of public opinion. But the West Riding men have always shown themselves singularly impatient of manipulation by "leagues" or "societies." They are true and staunch to their party; and have ever been in the front of the Liberal van. But they resist with characteristic stubbornness the efforts of professional agitators to drill them into regular battalions, or to hurry them into movements of which they only half approve. When we find such a meeting as that to which we are alluding, taking place at Bradford, we cannot help thinking that the apathy which has so long prevailed is at last giving way. Even those who oppose Reform on principle,—or on what stands them in the stead of principle,—admit that if any considerable number of the people demand it, it must be conceded. This is plainly the case; nor is it less plain that the sooner the demand is met the easier will be the terms on which it may be satisfied. The approach of a general election; the weakness and the exigencies of both the principal parliamentary parties, must give an almost unlimited advantage to genuine reformers, if they are supported by an earnest and widespread public opinion. We are glad to see many signs that such an opinion is growing. We shall be still more rejoiced to find that our leading statesmen are prepared to meet it in a spirit at once truly Liberal and truly Conservative.

The recent news from Australia is unpleasant in more ways than one. It seems that some at least of the inhabitants of Victoria have not been willing to wait even a few months, in order to see the effect upon the Home Government of their remonstrances against the transportation of convicts to Western Australia. Not satisfied with the irritating and bullying despatches which their ministers have addressed to the Colonial Office, a knot of wrong-headed and ill-tempered men have subscribed the requisite funds for the re-shipment of a number of convicts to Great Britain. The first batch has long since sailed from Melbourne, and may be daily expected to arrive in some English port. It is unnecessary to say a word either as to the silliness of this measure or as to the evil spirit in which it must have been conceived. If we had not been disposed to cease sending our criminals to Western Australia in deference to the wishes of the Australians generally, we should certainly not yield to the threats of Mr. Edward Wilson and his friends or to the slight annoyance which they may be the means of inflicting upon us. Their proceedings do not seem to have been approved by the great body of their fellow citizens; and when Mr. Cardwell's last despatch arrives out in the colony the folly and the ingratitude of their conduct will no doubt be universally acknowledged. At the same time it is far from pleasant or satisfactory to find that in almost all our colonies there is an active and noisy, if not a very large party, ever ready to attack the mother-country if her policy is not immediately trimmed in accordance with their wishes. After all, we fear that the attachment of our distant dependencies is little better than a sentiment—unless it be fed by a large expenditure out of the imperial exchequer. And every day's experience increases our doubt, whether there is any advantage in incurring the burthen of a connection with people who expect that all the gain should be on their side. If the parliament of Victoria should adopt a protective tariff, as it is supposed they will at no distant date, there will really be some difficulty in proving that we should not be all the better for parting company with a colony which is so selfish and so short-sighted.

Our hopes of the early restoration of peace in New Zealand are not likely to be realized. A large number of the natives whom our troops captured in the last campaign have made their escape, and have again taken up arms. At Tauranga, a large new work has been built near the site of the Gate pah which proved so disastrous to General Cameron's army; the survey of the confiscated lands has been stopped; and there are altogether strong indications of a

resumption of hostilities in this district. At Taranaki the natives are still in the field. But this is not the worst part of the news received by the last mail. After all, the conquest of the natives is merely a question of time: a little sooner or a little later, we are certain to accomplish it. We shall be glad to see the war over; but, on the other hand, we know that the longer it lasts the more solidly is peace likely to be established on the only possible basis—our complete ascendancy. But we can only receive with regret intelligence of a disagreement between Sir George Grey and his responsible ministers. It is most important for the future settlement of the island that the local and the imperial authorities should act cordially together; and that the policy adopted should receive the hearty support of both. We have not at present the means of judging conclusively whether the governor or his ministry are in the right; but although we have the highest respect for Sir George Grey's judgment, we must say that there seems some reason for thinking that Mr. Fox and his colleagues have taken the soundest view of the course to be pursued. The main dispute seems to have arisen with respect to the confiscation of land. The Governor is said to be in favour of making hardly any confiscation at all. His ministry contend that substantial punishment should be inflicted upon the rebellious natives in the only form in which it can be brought home to them,—and that at all events sufficient territory should be taken to enable the colony to keep faith with the military settlers whom it has invited. We must own to the opinion that the colonial statesmen have reason on their side. Mercy and generosity should be meted out to the Maories in no stinted measure. But, after all, their recent conduct has given us abundant right to take effectual measures for the security and the development of our own settlements.

The peculiar manner in which military news is manipulated by the Federal press is admirably illustrated by the latest batch of telegrams from America. We are told that on the 30th ult. General Schofield repulsed a heavy and persistent attack on Franklin by two corps of Hood's army; that the Confederates lost 5,000 in killed and wounded and had 1,000 of their number taken prisoners. After so crushing a defeat there can, of course, be nothing for the Confederates but instant retreat. To our surprise, however, it is the victorious Federals who abandon their position, while their disorganised antagonists instantly commence a hot pursuit, and are, according to the last advices, already preparing to bring on another battle before Nashville. The explanation of this apparently singular circumstance is not indeed far to seek. It is plain that the Northern army has sustained a severe defeat at Franklin, and that it is about to make a last stand at Nashville for the possession of East Tennessee. If that place should fall, the whole of this State, and probably Kentucky also, will fall into the hands of the Confederates. We are still without any really reliable information as to Sherman's progress—if indeed he is making any. But enough is known to show that he has found his task one of great if not insuperable difficulty. It is certain that he has captured neither Macon nor Augusta; and it seems most probable that he did not even venture to attack the former of these places. The latter he has never approached. As to his precise whereabouts there are different reports. But the most favourable represent him as having only succeeded in crossing the Oconnee river in the very last days of November. During the previous week, according to the Southern journals, he had been unable to advance ten miles, so effectually had he been harassed or withstood by the raw Georgian militia. He would soon have still more formidable antagonists to deal with. For some days before he could possibly have crossed the Oconnee the Southern troops had been rapidly concentrating at Augusta. Now, as this place lies at least 100 miles to the east of the river in question, and is upon a railway running south-east to Savannah, it seems certain that the Southern army will be able to throw themselves across Sherman's path long ere he can approach the sea-coast. It would be both rash and useless to speculate on the probable result of an engagement. But this we may at least say with confidence,—that even if Sherman reaches the ships which have been sent to meet him, he will do so without having accomplished any military object of importance. He may secure his own safety and that of his army; he may leave behind him a tract of devastated country; but he will take no town of

importance, nor impair in any way the resources or the strength of the Southern confederacy.

The more we hear of the alleged attempt to burn down New York, the less likely does it appear that the Confederates had any connection with so horrible a scheme. The supposed incendiaries appear to have acted in such a manner as to throw grave doubt upon their having a *bonâ fide* intention to commit arson. Undoubtedly, if they had such a design, they set about its accomplishment in the clumsiest manner possible. An hotel is the place in which a fire is least likely to escape detection for any length of time, especially if, as in the present case, care be taken that it shall burn slowly and emit a great quantity of smoke. It is not therefore surprising that some of those who observe how bunglingly these sixteen "incendiaries" did their work, should doubt whether they ever meant to do any serious mischief. Nor, looking to the use which the Republican journals have made of this incident, is it wonderful that a suspicion should have got abroad, that if they were the agents of any Government, they were not the agents of Mr. Davis. But the incident may serve the purpose of Mr. Lincoln and his friends, to frighten the people of New York into demanding the protection of martial law under the administration of General Butler.

GENERAL CIALDINI.

KNOWN hitherto only, or chiefly, as a general of great courage, energy, and skill, Enrico Cialdini bids fair, by the remarkable speech which he delivered in the Italian Senate on the 6th inst., during the debate on the bill for the transfer of the capital from Turin to Florence, to achieve for himself a conspicuous name as a debater and a statesman. His was certainly the most striking utterance of the discussion, and doubtless helped not a little to swell the numbers on the division to the immense majority which was declared at the close—viz., 134 to 47. Experienced speakers had preceded him; but, perhaps because all were prepared to hear them speak effectively, their arguments carried less force than the unanticipated eloquence of Cialdini. He spoke, moreover, from a point of view which, as a military man, he is peculiarly fitted to take. The position of Turin as the capital of a rising state neighboured by mighty empires, one of which, encamped on its soil, is animated by an avowed jealousy of its existence, while the other might, under possible contingencies, come into collision with it, is not such as any soldier can view with satisfaction, or even with equanimity. General Cialdini sees this weakness, expounds it with admirable clearness and rare felicity of language, and draws from it another and most powerful argument in favour of removing the capital beyond the natural rampart of mountains which Italy possesses against invasion from the North. It is seldom that an argument based on considerations of strategy and of military science is so lucidly stated that even the civilian can follow it without difficulty; but this end has been attained by the Italian general. Any one with a map before him, or with an ordinary knowledge of the configuration of the peninsula, will readily comprehend the reasons alleged by Cialdini why Turin is a dangerous capital for Italy, and Florence a safe one. Italy has more than two-thirds of her frontier washed by the sea; the other third has the Alps as a barrier, but not an impenetrable barrier, against France. At the foot of the Alps stretches the vast cultivated plain of Lombardy and Piedmont. To the south of this plain, the Apennines, which up to that point have run nearly north and south, bend inwards, striking towards the east, and stretch what Cialdini describes as an immense towering curtain between the Mediterranean and the Adriatic, from Genoa to La Cattolica. To the north of this curtain extends the valley of the Po, in the eastern division of which the Austrians are strongly entrenched within the fortifications of the Quadrilateral, whence they could at any time issue forth, march across the plain that lies before them, and pour down on Turin. This was what they attempted in 1859, and would probably have succeeded in doing, had not France interposed, and frustrated the design by the superior might of her arms in combination with those of the Sardinians. Turin, therefore, is not safe from Austrian inroads, and it is almost equally exposed to the hostile action of France, especially since the cession of Nice and Savoy has seriously weakened the frontier of the Alps. At no time, indeed, did the Alps present an insurmountable barrier to foreign troops desirous of descending upon Italy. From the days of Brennus to those of Napoleon, it has been found that armies may be transported from the one

side to the other; and since the arrangement of 1860, France has had a stronger and Italy a weaker position in this respect. Cialdini pointed out the fact in a memorandum which he addressed to the Minister of War as long ago as June, 1862—a document in which he distinctly stated that the capital of Italy, if it could not be Rome, should undoubtedly be Florence or Naples. This view, it is almost needless to say, does not proceed from any unworthy suspicion of France, the services rendered by whom to Italy are unquestionably very great, and whose friendliness is not likely to be changed or abandoned. But every nation has the right to protect itself against possible eventualities; and a town so exposed as Turin to two powerful neighbours is not fitted to be the centre of the national life, the seat of government, the spot wherein are concentrated reserves, depôts, magazines, arsenals, factories, and all the means of a country's resistance and defence. Cialdini would therefore withdraw the capital beyond the Apennines, the few passes of which may each, he avers, be converted into a modern Thermopylæ. It is true that Napoleon Bonaparte said that "the fate of Italy is decided on the Po;" but circumstances have greatly altered since his days, and General Cialdini pertinently pointed out that, although Hannibal disastrously worsted the Romans on the banks of that river, he was unable to reach Rome itself, and was eventually compelled to retreat. Safely seated at Florence, any Italian Government, in the event of invasion, could mature its plans in calmness; could engage the enemy, if it thought fit, in the valley of the Po, and, if defeated there, could withdraw its forces behind the bulwark of the Apennines, where all the natural features of the country are such as to render a defence capable of indefinite prolongation. Cialdini, as a native of Modena, cannot be suspected of any undue partiality for Florence or for Tuscany, and as a Northern Italian he is likely to feel a strong sympathy with the brave little Piedmontese state and town which have done so much for the common country. That sympathy he expresses in language of touching warmth and enthusiasm; but he will not allow mere feeling to get the better of his sense of what is due to the safety of his native land. In an epigram which had more heart in it than epigrams generally have, he said, when making allowances for the natural regrets of the Turinese—"An eye filled with tears does not see." And with equal eloquence he bade them remember that "the school of sacrifice ennobles great causes, retempers the soul, and magnifies the national character. Prometheus could transform clay into men: sacrifice alone changes men into heroes." If it be said that these are merely fine words, it may be replied that the Italians have frequently shown of late that they can act in the spirit of such words. A nation that has learnt the lesson of self-sacrifice is safe against all foes.

It may be expected that so remarkable a speech will bring Cialdini very prominently forward, and that he will carve out for himself a future such as, perhaps, few have set down for him. He is understood to be ambitious, and he has already given proofs that he possesses military capacity of no mean order. Being a younger man than La Marmora (who has now completed his sixtieth year), he has, in the ordinary course of things, a longer period before him, and may fairly aspire to being some day at the head of the army, if not of the Government. Cialdini is a little turned fifty, and first distinguished himself, when a very young man, in the Italian revolution of 1831, at which time he was studying medicine in the university of Parma. He was concerned in the insurrection at Bologna in that year; but when the Austrians intervened, and the rising hopes of Italy were crushed, he was obliged to fly for his life. A very horrible story is told of the fate of his father—a story which reminds one of the Italy of the middle ages, or of Mrs. Radcliffe's romances. It is said that the elder Cialdini was poisoned by slow doses of belladonna in the dungeons of the Duke of Modena, into which he had been thrown. If this is really the fact, one can well understand how such a frightful tragedy, occurring in the case of his own parent, must have intensified the hatred of the young patriot towards the remorseless tyrants who then held his country in subjection. He must have felt like Macduff after hearing of the slaughter of his wife and children by the orders of Macbeth. Yet for many years he had no opportunity of fleshing his sword on his native soil. On the failure of the insurrection he went to Paris, where he studied chemistry, and was preparing to resume his pursuit of medicine as a means of living when he was invited to join the Foreign Legion which was being organized for the support of the cause of Don Pedro in Portugal—a cause which, being that of Liberalism, was dear to the heart of Cialdini. He afterwards passed into Spain, fought with Espartero against Don Carlos, and, when the Italian

movements of 1848 commenced, was a lieutenant-colonel in the Spanish service. Having gone to Paris to study the organization of the French gendarmerie, it was in that city that he first heard of the breaking out of the war between Austria and Sardinia; and he at once hastened to the scene of action. Mazzini recommended him to the Provisional Government of Milan; but, owing to the changes in the military situation, he joined the Papal forces under General Durando (it should be recollected that the Pope was then acting on the side of the patriots), and marched on Vicenza, where he received three wounds of such gravity that he was incapacitated for nearly a year. He was present, however, on the fatal field of Novara, where he greatly distinguished himself by holding the position of Biccoca against the whole of the Austrian advanced guard. This was in 1849, and from that year to 1854 he remained in retirement. When, however, Sardinia, at the bold instigation of Cavour, determined on joining the Anglo-French forces in the Crimea—a step which contributed as much as anything towards re-establishing the belief of Europe in the prowess and energy of the Italian race—Cialdini received a command in the brave little sub-Alpine army, and made a brilliant figure at the battle of the Tchernaya. In 1859, when France and Sardinia declared war against Austria, he was placed at the head of a *corps d'armée*, and opened the campaign by effecting the passage of the Sesia in the face of the Austrians, and driving them from their posts. It was he, too, who, previous to the commencement of hostilities, organized the *Cacciatori delle Alpi*—a body of volunteers which, under the command of Garibaldi, rendered the greatest services to the cause, and performed some wonderful feats of daring and strategy among the mountains and on the lakes. Garibaldi and Cialdini for some time co-operated in the campaign in Lombardy—a fact which must have given additional bitterness to the events of August, 1862, when those two brave and admirable men were brought by the rashness of one of them into temporary collision. The sudden and unexpected peace of Villafranca again threw Cialdini into a state of inaction; but September, 1860, once more saw him at the head of an Italian force, with which he achieved a more remarkable success than any he had yet accomplished. He was at that time military commander at Bologna, and it came to the knowledge of the Government of Victor Emmanuel that Colonel Charras, a French Republican exile, had been requested by some of the extreme Democratic advisers of Garibaldi to take the command of an army destined for the invasion of the Papal States. Cavour, with his masterly power of turning even unpromising events to the advantage of the cause he was serving, at once hinted to the French Emperor that such an interposition would be extremely awkward, and indeed dangerous, for all concerned, and that it would be better to anticipate it by sending a detachment of the regular army across the frontiers of the Pope's dominions. Farini and Cialdini were dispatched to Chambéry, and succeeded in convincing the Emperor that it would be unwise in him to object to such a proceeding. "Whatever you do," he is reported to have said, "do it quickly." And quickly enough it was done. Though opposed by so excellent a general as Lamoricière, the Italian made short work of the hordes of Belgians and Irishmen whom the Pope had succeeded in rallying to his flag. On the 11th of September he crossed the Papal frontier; on the 18th he gained the celebrated victory of Castelfidardo, though not without some severe fighting; and eleven days later, Ancona, into which Lamoricière had retired after his discomfiture, surrendered to the national troops. Early in 1861, Cialdini took Gaeta after a bombardment of seventeen days, which crushed the resistance of the ex-King of Naples on the mainland; and fifteen days afterwards he made himself master of the citadel of Messina, which was the last hold the deposed monarch had upon the island of Sicily. Cialdini was now made a full general in the army—a rank equivalent to that of Field-Marshal in other countries; and later in the year he was appointed Viceroy of Naples, with plenary authority for putting down brigandage. This mission, however, it must be admitted, proved a failure. The fiery soldier acted with too much impetuosity; and, by the severity of his retaliations on the brigands for the unutterable atrocities they had committed, he brought himself into unpopularity, and was recalled, to be succeeded by the illustrious soldier now at the head of the Italian Government. Since then, the only important act of Cialdini's life has been the very painful one of opposing his old comrade, Garibaldi, when the latter made his ill-advised attempt on Rome in August, 1862. On that occasion, though La Marmora was nominally in command, Cialdini was the officer in the field; and with admirable promptitude and energy did he act. The event is one over

which we would gladly drop the curtain; but assuredly the blame did not rest with the conqueror of Gaeta.

It will be seen from this sketch that Cialdini is possessed of military powers amounting to genius. Like Garibaldi, his earlier career was as a species of amateur; like Garibaldi, he fought abroad when fortune denied to him the service of his own country; and again like Garibaldi, he is a child of the Revolution. But he is a man of more moderate views and more practical disposition, and so far has a greater chance of saving his fame from miserable reverses. In personal appearance, he is a handsome, dashing, soldierly chief; his manners jovial in the camp, though with a strict regard to discipline, and in general society gay, easy, and agreeable, so that he is apt to make himself liked both by men and women. His delivery in public speaking is good, and his actions graceful and impressive. As in the case of most Italians, his temper is rather irascible, and a few years ago he got into a serious quarrel with Garibaldi, in consequence of having in a letter reproved the Liberator for his extreme views, and for his eccentricity in sitting in Parliament in his red shirt, grey mantle, and slouch-hat. The circumstance very nearly led to a duel between the heroes; but Cialdini had the good sense to apologise for the vehemence of his language, which was in truth unjustifiable. Such is the man who has just surprised the Italian Senate by his eloquence and wise counsels, and to whom the country now looks for still greater services than he has yet rendered her.

THE BEGINNING OF THE REFORM AGITATION.

A GREAT West Riding Reform meeting has been held, and the *Times* has devoted two leaders to prove that it will lead to nothing. Both are significant facts. They mean that the Reform agitation which a Conservative-Liberal Ministry has contrived to keep in abeyance during its tenure of power is breaking out again, and that the Ministerial organs know it and fear it. But among those who fear it, whether on the right or left of the Speaker, whether accustomed to poll for the blue or the yellow candidate, there are two classes. The one, represented by the *Times*, consists of those who are rich or bent on becoming rich, who worship and struggle for the possession of social distinctions, to whom the West End is paradise, and the privileges of wealth and worldly honour the sole coveted objects of life. With these it were lost time to argue, for they are impervious to argument founded on any other idea than their own advancement. But there is another class, men who frankly and honestly desire to extend the franchise if they dared, but who are misled by the arguments which tell them that its extension is not desired, and would be fruitless and dangerous. For their sakes it is worth while to consider such arguments. Nor shall we snatch a victory by the retort that they are so inconsistent that they refute each other. Rather let us take each separately, and judge of its worth on its own merits.

Reform, it is said, is not desired. Undoubtedly it is not desired to the extent that men will rise in insurrection for it, or will spend day after day in attending meetings to hear it asked for. But what improvement in our social state is now desired to that extent? We know, and none know it better than the working men, that there is a force in the silent opinion of the nation which gains its object more surely and perhaps more quickly than the noisiest agitation. Trusting to this progress of the public mind they remain quiet, but not indifferent. No one can go among them and hear their discussions without recognising that they feel themselves marked and degraded by the distinction which forbids their class the franchise. The information vouchsafed by the *Times* that they are free, if they do not like our institutions, to leave the country, adds insult to the wrong. They, too, are Englishmen, they have part and lot in our country, they share its glory, they form its strength. Why should they wander forth as outcasts because there are privileged classes who will not admit their rights? But let them be content, say their rulers, for they are well ruled. They enjoy more comfort than the working classes of any other country. They do not pretend that they have any measure of use to themselves which they want to carry. Why should they ask, then, for power which they do not need to use, and the exercise of which would bring them no tangible benefits? If there really were any important improvement to be gained, the *Times* says it would concede their case. But it cannot conceive what such people want with the franchise, when they have no private object to obtain by its means. Now we shall venture to answer this style of reasoning by an analogy. Suppose it were part of our Constitution that rich men, say all who have above £1,000 a year, should be excluded from the franchise.

Very sage reasons might have led to such a provision. Our forefathers might have argued that as wealth is the root of evil, it should not be allowed to have concern with our government. They might have thought that riches bring selfishness, and that selfishness unfits men for the control of others. They might have felt that to do what is right is more important than to do what is profitable, and that the corrupting influence of money was a bad qualification for doing what is right. But we need not, for the purpose of our illustration, analyze the reasons that might have actuated them. Let us only suppose that for some reason, more or less sound or plausible, the wealthy class was excluded from power. Would they have felt that to be no wrong, however wisely and beneficially they might feel themselves to be governed? Would they be calmly content to lie under the stigma of being a "dangerous" class, not because of any mental tendencies, but only because they were distinguished by the possession of more wealth? Would it satisfy their reason to be told that no injury was done them, for they might emigrate if they were discontented, and they could by surrendering their wealth bring themselves at any time within the pale of the franchise? Would it suffice to inform them that the privileges they were excluded from would be useless to them, because the right of sending a representative to Parliament was a very small matter, and they could point out no material grievance under which they laboured? Or would they not, on the contrary, justly represent that their heavy and intolerable grievance was, that they were governed and not allowed to govern themselves; that they were subjected to the authority of others in matters affecting their rights as men and citizens without power of more than remonstrance; that the accident of possession of property was made a test of their status as human beings, and that they were shut out from participating in the regulation of matters affecting their souls and bodies, the welfare of the State, the duties of the nation, on the irrelevant pretext that when questions of taxation occurred they could not be expected to be disinterested or enlightened? These undoubtedly would be admitted by all to be just grounds of complaint in the case supposed. They might not be felt so strongly as to excite the class subjected to them to insurrection, or even to vehement agitation, but they would certainly engender in it a deep spirit of dissatisfaction. And precisely such a spirit of dissatisfaction, as well warranted, exists among the working men who now, whatever their worth or ability, are deprived of the franchise by the operation of the rough test of a £10 franchise. All the assurances in the world that they are free to act and free to speak will not convince them that they are fairly dealt with when they are kept beyond the pale of citizenship only because they have not yet been able to save up the requisite amount of money to buy their entrance.

But what, after all, does the argument that the working men have no great object to gain through the acquisition of the franchise amount to, looking at it from our point of view, and not from theirs? It really means that they would in no degree revolutionize the government of the country. It shows only that in the opinion even of their opponents they have no separate interests to serve, no private objects to gain. It would be, in truth, a heavy argument against their admission if the contrary could be averred. If it were true that the working men sought power in order to achieve some purpose of peculiar interest to themselves, and which they could only gain by securing an overwhelming supremacy in the State, there would be the best possible reason for excluding them as long as possible. But the fact that they have no such purpose in view proves both that they are enlightened and that they are not dangerous. Yet, though they have no separate interests, it cannot be said that they would be of no service. In matters which concerned them equally with others they would bring special knowledge to their consideration. They are entitled to be heard, and their opinions would be most valuable, in regard to all measures respecting education, the repression of crime, the laws affecting the social and family relations. Although our laws are good in the main, nobody can profess to call them perfect. But the most effectual method of improving them is to admit to the council in which they are revised the largest diversity of classes that are affected by them. Information as to their working in every variety of circumstances, and as to the effect in every situation and rank of any projected change, is the most valuable foundation of amendment. Nor can there be a surer defence against the occasional prejudice which local or class interest may engender than that the greatest variety of classes and interests should be allowed to participate in the decision. In this regard, as we have before shown, the working men will never form one united body. They are broken up as much as any other class is by the

diversity of their occupations; they have no common bond of interest; they seek no common object; and they will therefore, in the consideration of legislative improvements, supply the advantage of varied information and the corrective of conflicting ideas.

All these considerations are, however, radically opposed to the proposition with which Mr. Charles Buxton, in a letter bristling with polyglot quotation, has lately favoured the public. The notion of this ingenious gentleman is that property is the only thing to be legislated for, and that, therefore, all difficulty will be removed if we allow each man a number of votes proportioned to his property. Mr. Buxton claims for his scheme the benefit of the analogy exhibited by the election of vestrymen, and we may offer him the benefit of the further analogy of the direction of a railway company. But, unfortunately, he has not risen to the appreciation of an essential distinction between the parish and the nation, the company and the commonwealth. These excellent local and limited liability corporations have nothing to do but with the raising and application of money, and they are, therefore, very properly governed by the predominance of wealth. But the nation has to do with a thousand things more important than money: it is concerned with the Church, the school, the family; it regulates every civil relation; it deals with men as beings having rights, and not merely as beings paying rates and calls.

THE CASE OF BISHOP COLENZO.

NEARLY twelve months have elapsed since we first drew attention in the columns of this journal to the legal position of Bishop Colenso [LONDON REVIEW, Dec. 19, 1863; Jan. 2, 1864]. We then detailed the proceedings which had been instituted before the Bishop of Capetown; and, whilst disclaiming all desire to prejudge the merits of the case and any sympathy with the theological opinions of the accused, we felt it our duty to censure in the strongest terms the extraordinary and almost Papal authority arrogated to himself by Dr. Gray. As we then anticipated, Dr. Colenso has not acquiesced quietly in the sentence of deposition pronounced on him by his Metropolitan. He has appealed for the justice which, however great have been his errors, he certainly did not obtain at Capetown, to her Majesty in Council; and, while we write, the arguments are in progress. Never in the history of the Church of England has there been a more important crisis, and we are quite sure it could not be submitted to a more august or impartial tribunal than that to which the Queen has referred it.

It may be well very shortly to recall to our readers' recollection the material facts of this "leading case" on the law of the Church. In the year 1847, at a time when the colony of Natal and Capetown were administratively distinct, but whilst the former was a dependency of the latter, and whilst the latter was still without an independent Legislature, the Cape settlement and its dependencies were constituted an episcopal see by royal letters patent.

It soon became apparent, however, that the diocese was unwieldy in size, and accordingly, in the year 1853, it was determined to divide it into three sees, those of Capetown, Grahamstown, and Natal. On the 23rd of November, in that year, Dr. Colenso was appointed Bishop of Natal, and his letters patent provided that he should be subject to the Bishop of Capetown, "in the same manner as any bishop of any see within the province of Canterbury was under the authority of the archiepiscopal see of that province." Dr. Gray, who had previously resigned his see, was reappointed, on the 8th of December following, as Bishop and Metropolitan. In the interval, it is important to observe that the colony had become possessed of representative institutions. Dr. Colenso, in due time, took the usual oath of canonical obedience as a suffragan to the Metropolitan; but neither when he took the oath nor for years after had he any notice of the unusual provisions which were contained in Dr. Gray's letters patent. These, after formerly granting to him "full power and authority as Metropolitan of the Cape of Good Hope and of the island of St. Helena, to perform all functions peculiar and appropriate to the office of Metropolitan," ordained that, in case any proceeding should be instituted against any of the suffragan bishops, it should be originated and carried on before the Bishop of Capetown, and that the person accused might, if he pleased, appeal to the Archbishop of Canterbury, who should "finally" decide upon the matters in dispute. Thus, the right of appeal possessed by every English suffragan to the Queen was taken away from the suffragans of the South African branch of the English Church, and the Primate was, in their case, substituted for the Crown.

Such, then, was the position of the two Bishops towards each other, when Dr. Colenso entered on that series of theological enquiries, which, beginning with his commentary on the epistle to the Romans, and culminating in the publication of his work on the Pentateuch, laid the foundation of the proceedings against him. In July, 1863, he was cited to appear before Dr. Gray to answer certain charges of false doctrine based especially on his later books, preferred by the Dean of Capetown and two other clergymen, and on the 17th of November Dr. Gray proceeded to hear the case, with the advice of the Bishop of Grahamstown, who is one of the suffragans of the province, and that of the Bishop of the Orange Free State, who is not a suffragan of Dr. Gray, but a missionary bishop. It is difficult to see why the last-named prelate was summoned at all. Perhaps it was supposed that as it takes three prelates to consecrate a bishop, so it must take three to deprive him; and there is, in fact, some colour in ecclesiastical history for such an opinion. At any rate, for some reason difficult to guess, Dr. Gray thought fit to invest Dr. Twells as a sort of "odd man" with judicial functions. Upon the hearing the Bishop of Natal appeared, in order to protest against the jurisdiction of the court, to deny that he was guilty of publishing erroneous doctrines, and, lastly, to give notice of his intention to appeal from an adverse judgment if such were pronounced. The cause was fully argued by the Dean of Capetown, and at the conclusion of the case for the prosecution the court adjourned to consider their judgment. Then followed an episode which would be farcical if the matter were not in reality too serious for laughter. The three bishops who had just been sitting as judges of Dr. Colenso, transformed themselves with a celerity an actor in a pantomime might have envied, into what they called a "synod," to which the Metropolitan "communicated" the sentence he proposed to be passed on the Bishop of Natal. We need hardly say that the "synod" approved its tenour. They could do no less, for it was their own sentence; but a bystander will be at a loss to know what additional weight they supposed that so absurd a proceeding could confer upon it. After performing this strange feat of ecclesiastical jugglery, they passed a variety of resolutions repudiating the authority of English ecclesiastical law except so far as it might be considered to supplement manifest defects in the canon law, and declaring "the Church of South Africa" (as they choose to name their division of the Church of England) free from all obligation to respect the interpretations placed on the formularies of the Church of England by the English ecclesiastical courts. They also resolved, "without expressing any opinion on the general question of appeal to England," that it would be "highly desirable" to allow the Bishop of Natal to appeal to the Archbishop of Canterbury—that is, they conceded to him as a favour what, if he had elected to treat Dr. Gray's letters patent as valid, he might have demanded as a right. Dr. Colenso, however, has not availed himself of the "synod's" superfluous courtesy. He has appealed for redress, as every sensible layman anticipated that he would, not to the Archbishop but to her Majesty in Council, and he places his case in two aspects, which we shall now briefly explain.

First, he says that the Bishop of Capetown had no right whatever to pass sentence of deprivation on him, a Royal Commission being, for such a purpose, the only competent tribunal. In order to establish this point, his counsel went through a long line of authorities on which they relied to show that a Metropolitan could not, even in the first instance, deprive a suffragan. The only case adverse to their argument seems to be that of Dr. Watson, the Bishop of St. Davids, in the reign of Queen Anne, who certainly was deprived by the Primate. But the authority of this case, as Mr. James pointed out, is much impaired by the fact that a fierce spirit of partisanship then prevailed in the Church, and prevented a prelate, known to be a furious Jacobite and a man of a violent, over-bearing temper, from getting a fair hearing. There is, indeed, one other case of a similar character, but it is of no value as a legal authority. In 1822 the miserable Bishop of Clogher was deprived of his office by a sort of synod of Irish bishops, presided over by the Archbishop of Armagh. But the conscience-stricken criminal, who had been guilty of a crime too disgraceful to be specified, never appeared to answer the charges made against him, and allowed judgment to go by default.

The counsel for Dr. Gray will doubtless rely in their arguments upon Dr. Watson's case, and will, we presume, pray in aid those provisions in the letters patent of the 8th of Dec. 1863, expressly providing that the Bishop of Capetown shall have cognizance of all proceedings against any of his suffragans. But the answer of Dr. Colenso is that those letters

patent were issued by the Crown in excess of its authority, inasmuch as they professed to create a new criminal court in a colony having representative institutions, and that they are therefore void. Or, even assuming them to be valid, Dr. Colenso contends that they do not affect him, having been issued *after* his appointment to the see of Natal. He took the oath of canonical obedience, it is true—but, in his view, that only binds him to render such submission to Dr. Gray as Dr. Tait is bound to render to the English Primate. It does *not* bind him to accept all the terms of the subsequent letters patent of his Metropolitan, any more than it pledges him to aid and abet all the fantastic schemes by which Dr. Gray is seeking to extend his episcopal authority beyond the limits imposed on him by the law of England.

The decision, therefore, of the Judicial Committee will, once and for all, settle the question of the power of a Metropolitan to deprive a suffragan. If they should decide that he has no such power, the whole of the proceedings of the Bishop of Capetown will fall to the ground, and Dr. Colenso will be at liberty to return to his diocese to-morrow. If he should do so, the unconverted natives of Natal will perhaps be the witnesses of a scandalous and unprecedented episcopal squabble. For Dr. Gray, whilst on his recent visit to Natal, promised an old resident in the colony that, if a civil court thrust back an unbelieving bishop upon the Church, he would return and consecrate a faithful pastor for the diocese in the Cathedral, or if driven out of the Cathedral, would consecrate him "under the shelter of a tree." "The old gentleman," continues the "journal" of the visitation, "expressed great satisfaction, and said with what pleasure he would come up and raise the psalm tune." We trust that the occasion for his "raising the psalm tune" may never arise. Surely, Dr. Gray, with all his faults, is incapable of turning a cathedral in a heathen colony into the arena of unseemly discord.

But, assuming that the Committee decide that the Bishop of Capetown *had* power to entertain the case, the question will arise as to Dr. Colenso's right of appeal. And on this point the case of Dr. Watson, which we have above referred to, is in the appellant's favour. The whole law of the Church, moreover, appears to be based upon the principle of the Royal supremacy. The Queen, and she alone, is the final arbitress in causes ecclesiastical as well as civil, and it will require most cogent arguments to induce the Committee to believe that Dr. Colenso is deprived of the right which the humblest English curate possesses. If, therefore, he is beaten on the first point, he has still the second to fall back upon. If beaten also upon the second, there will be an end of the matter. But—as far as the opinion of the Court was indicated during the argument—it does not appear probable that they will decide first that Dr. Gray was right in entertaining the cause, and secondly that there is no appeal from his decision. We certainly should lament such a result, for we should deeply regret to see any irresponsible power placed in the hands of a prelate, zealous indeed, but with too much of the temper of Laud to be impartial. A decision in favour of Dr. Gray on the first point, and of Dr. Colenso on the second, would probably be the most satisfactory to the public, and, we may add, on the authority of a statement made yesterday by Mr. Fitzjames Stephen to the Court, to the appellant himself. He would then have the merits of the case argued without delay, and whatever might be the result, he would, at all events, be spared further suspense. We shall await their Lordships' judgment with the liveliest interest. Whatever it may be, we may be sure that the liberties of the Church of England are safe in their hands.

THE "FLORIDA" DIFFICULTY SOLVED.

MR. LINCOLN'S Government has, by a stroke of good fortune or adroit connivance, been relieved from a great perplexity. It is hard, when one has difficulties enough on hand, to have others gratuitously forced upon one by the over-zeal of subordinates; and perhaps the greatest trial the Northern States have had to face and the greatest sacrifice they have had to make was occasioned by the intemperate conduct of Commodore Wilkes. For the sacrifice of money the States do not care; for the sacrifice of men they care, perhaps, as little. But to touch their pride is to wound them in their most sensitive part. Enough was suffered in this way when they had to submit to the humiliation of restoring the Confederate commissioners who had been taken from the deck of a British ship. Not that it need have been a humiliation; but that they had chosen to take up a position with regard to the illegal act of the Commodore, which made it so. Much in the same way there was rejoicing when the *Florida* was stolen out of the

harbour of Bahia. But, in the midst of the congratulations upon that successful piece of buccaneering, it was forgotten that it could only be maintained by the greater humiliation of appearing to refuse to a weak State the reparation which had been made to a powerful one. That disgrace must be incurred, or the *Florida* must be restored. Here again was a dilemma, upon which Mr. Lincoln's Government was forced by the over-zeal of the captain of the *Wachusett*. It would be disgraceful to keep the *Florida*; it would be humiliating to restore her. In the latter case Federal officers would have been obliged to take the "pirate" back and suffer the mortification of seeing her saluted as she entered the harbour of Rio Janeiro with the rebel flag flying. The merchants of New York would sleep uneasily, knowing that their old scourge was again free to sweep the seas, and the sovereign people of the North, who are too apt to confound might with right, would have looked unfavourably on such an infringement of the "good old plan" that "they shall keep who can." The dilemma was embarrassing. There lay the *Florida*, which had destroyed Federal ships by the score, and Federal merchandise worth millions of dollars. Was she to be given up? "Yes," if honour and honesty were to carry the question. "No," if passion and self-interest were to prevail. In this puzzling position a happy accident stepped in to relieve the Government of its difficulty. On the 19th ult., as the *Florida* was lying in Hampton Roads, the transport steamer *Alliance* ran into her, struck her on the bow, knocked off her head-chains and booms, and otherwise so damaged her that on the 29th the special correspondent of the *New York World* was able to write:—"The question what shall be done with the *Florida* has been definitely and summarily disposed of without reference to international law. Instead of being now on her way to Rio Janeiro or Bahia, with her captured crew on board, as it was expected she would be, the notorious privateer lies nine fathoms deep in the waters of the James."

This was definite and summary, no doubt; but was it accidental? It certainly could not have been more opportune had it been designed, and it appears that even so staunch a supporter of the Northern States as Professor Goldwin Smith cannot resist the suspicion that the "accident" was intentional. He writes, that "there is too much reason to fear that American honour has suffered a great stain;" and he not only hints that Admiral Porter is the party to blame for the sinking of the *Florida*, but supplies the motive for such an act upon his part. "The naval commander at Fortress Monroe, where the *Florida* was lying, and where she was sunk, is Admiral Porter, a gallant and distinguished officer, but one who bears in his temperament and habits of mind a very close resemblance to the ill-starred Commodore Wilkes. His father was a prisoner in our hands, having been captured in the *Essex*, when she was cut out by us from a neutral port; and, if I am not misinformed, this unlucky reminiscence is constantly present to his mind." It is all very well to say immediately after this, "we will not jump to conclusions;" but Mr. Goldwin Smith having helped us thus far to a very disagreeable conclusion touching the conduct of the gallant and distinguished officer, makes it almost inevitable when he adds that the *Florida's* position off Fortress Monroe "was one in which an accidental collision might easily occur." Who placed her there? She was pronounced after her capture to be scarcely seaworthy; "some loose language and some lawless thoughts" were uttered with regard to her by "many Americans, including some public men," in Mr. Goldwin Smith's hearing, though he is "convinced" there has been a general disposition to do what public law required; she was placed in a position where an accidental collision might easily occur, under the control of an admiral who, in his temperament and habits of mind closely resembles Commodore Wilkes. What is the inference from all this, but that the collision which presently took place was planned? Mr. Goldwin Smith is so little able to resist the suspicious look of the affair, that he thinks it necessary to observe that "a personal escapade is not, unless ratified by the nation, a national offence."

This is true. And it may also be, as he says he believes, that the sinking of the *Florida* "is not the deliberate act of the Government or of the nation." How a nation can act deliberately except through its Government we do not know. But it is easy to see how a Government may repudiate the acts of its subordinates, and yet be very well pleased with them. If Mr. Lincoln's rule had been characterized by a scrupulous adherence to law, and if he had uniformly exacted from those under him the same honourable preciseness, he would now be able to plead previous character against the suspicion that he had any knowledge of the fate which was about to befall the *Florida*. But unfortunately the testimony

of character is dead against him in this matter. To cite but a single instance, it was not till the last moment, and when the alternative of hostilities had become inevitable, that he did justice in the *Trent* affair, and he followed up his surrender of the Confederate commissioners by promoting to the rank of admiral the officer who had taken them in admitted violation of the law of nations. Possibly, with this precedent before his mind, Captain Collins was aiming at similar promotion when he stole the *Florida* out of the harbour of Bahia, and the service he has rendered to his Government, though as illegal as Commodore Wilkes', may meet an equal reward. But in this case, again, Mr. Lincoln has postponed the disagreeable act of reparation till it has become impossible. The *Florida* was taken from the harbour of Bahia, into which she had gone for repairs, on the 7th of October. From the time when she was taken to Hampton Roads till the *Alliance* ran into her she lay off Fortress Monroe in a condition scarcely seaworthy, leaking so badly as to keep the steam-pump continually engaged. Between the date of her capture and the day when she sank upwards of six weeks elapsed. But nothing was done either to restore her to the Brazilian Government, or to keep her out of harm's way. If it is true that she lay in a position where accidental collision might easily occur, that fact, as well as her unseaworthy state, was no doubt known not only to Admiral Porter, but to the Government. Would it have been unreasonable in the Admiral to conclude that it would gratify his superiors if the *Florida* came to grief? Is it unreasonable in us to conclude that the result which her state and position were so well calculated to induce, and which would solve for Mr. Lincoln's Government a disagreeable perplexity, was anticipated and planned?

ALDERMAN MECCHI AND THE UNITY BANK.

MR. ALDERMAN MECCHI has told the story of his connection with the Unity Bank, and though he has to-day to undergo cross-examination, we are satisfied to take his own report of his conduct while he acted as chairman of that unfortunate speculation, and see how it will stand the test of common sense and common prudence. He became governor of the company in 1856, an office which was subsequently designated by the term "chairman," and for the first and second years received £500 per annum for his services. They were not, of course, to be nominal services, and the salary he received was given for something more than the weight of his name. The first notable act which we find him performing is his recommendation, in August, 1857, of a new manager, Mr. Terry, to take the place of the old manager, Mr. Chambers. Up to that date the bank had sustained heavy losses, and Mr. Chambers having retired with the character of an unsuccessful manager, Mr. Terry, on Alderman Mechi's recommendation, took his place. The directors parted with Mr. Chambers with deep regret, not, indeed, because he had managed their business well, but, as Mr. Mechi states, because he had been twenty-eight years in the bank of Messrs. Barnett, Hoare, & Co., before he came to them; and, we presume, they put Mr. Terry into his place because he had been seventeen years in the bank of Jones, Loyd, & Co., and because Mr. Mechi had great faith in his ability as well as in his character.

But as the twenty-eight years' service which Chambers had rendered to Messrs. Barnett, Hoare, & Co. had not proved an efficient guarantee for his successful conduct of the affairs of the Unity Bank, the directors, with Mr. Mechi at their head, resolved not to rely absolutely on Terry's seventeen years' service with Jones, Loyd, & Co.; and accordingly fresh rules were entered in the minute-book for his guidance as manager, "it having been considered necessary to make new and stringent regulations for the better management of the bank." There was good reason for this precaution. In 1857 the bank had lost £38,000 in past-due bills; but what the "new and stringent regulations" were, does not appear. They seemed to work well, however, for in the report of July, 1861, the available surplus, after payment of the current expenses of the chief office and branches, and making provision for bad debts, was, including the balance of the preceding half-year, £4,066. 2s. 4d. Upon this a dividend of 12s. 6d. per share, free of income-tax, was declared. What means had the chairman and directors taken to verify the balance-sheet which showed this result? Had they examined the books and accounts, as each of them in their individual trades would have done? Did they take measures to have a list made out of the past-due bills, and their estimated value? Did they, with their own eyes, examine any of the documents on which the balance-sheet was founded, and which they could have had before them by merely asking for them? No, they did not.

"We, the directors," says Mr. Mechi, "never had possession of the books and accounts. We directed the manager and secretary to make a true transcript of the books, with a fair and just valuation of every asset, without colouring or misrepresentation of any kind, and we believed that had been done when the balance-sheet was handed to us. They were directed to lay before the auditors, who were appointed by the shareholders, full and correct accounts of everything they asked to know without our interference in any way." What could be more complete or more "stringent?" Again and again these painstaking directors inquired from the secretary what was the value of certain bills. There was, indeed, a book of past-due bills kept, "but that was left entirely to the manager." Not a single book did the directors have before them to test the truth of the balance-sheet. "It was not our duty," says Mr. Mechi. "We, as directors, could not be clerks, and we could not be manager."

One would imagine that the duty of inspecting the books and ascertaining by the best available evidence what was the value of the past-due bills and of the securities lodged with the bank was one which pre-eminently pertained to the directors. Emphatically so, when the directors were agitated with an extreme anxiety about several of the accounts. On the 31st of December, 1861, the manager gave a person named Bunyard, a customer of the bank, a discharge from a debt of £5,200, and on the same day granted him a loan of £960. Mr. Mechi says that he knew nothing of either of these transactions; but he admits that "Bunyard's was an account with respect to which I felt very anxious, and I frequently warned Terry about it, and urged him to have good security, as I did not like the man." Again, there was an assignment or release of a debt of £10,000 due to the bank by a person named Pearl. This account, also, "we watched with great intensity, and, over and over again, inquired of Mr. Terry whether he was satisfied as to its *bonâ fide* character." Another account was that of Lowenthal. This, also, "was one which caused us great anxiety, and we frequently asked if the securities were perfectly correct. The answer was, 'certainly.'" Yet, though Bunyard's debt was discharged, and a new loan granted to him, though Pearl's debt was assigned or released, though Lowenthal's bills were struck out of the book to avoid presentation, the directors with all their "anxiety" and "intensity," knew not a syllable of what was going on in respect of these fatal transactions. They were "directors, not clerks." On the contrary, they seem to us to have been clerks and not directors.

These are only specimens of the gross frauds which were committed on the bank, of which the directors knew nothing, and could not of course know anything, as they neither inspected the books, nor took measures to have the past bills brought before them. If these bills had been brought before them, as Mr. Mechi says they ought to have been, "they would not have gone on renewing or discounting bills for the same parties." But while this was the loose and inefficient manner in which they conducted the business of the bank, what report did they make of their diligence to the shareholders? At a meeting in 1858, Mr. Mechi, as chairman, assured this confiding body that the directors did not trust entirely to managers or clerks, but examined every bill that was discounted, and the particulars of every loan that was proposed. At a meeting in 1859 he assured them that he had paid ten times more attention to the bank than he did to his own business, and he repeated that statement at the Mansion House on Saturday last. What are the proofs of his extraordinary vigilance? First, that a large portion of the £207,668 which appears in the balance-sheet as "bills discounted, loans to customers, &c.," is bad. Secondly, that in that amount figure the bills and loans of persons hopelessly insolvent. Lastly, that the Unity Bank itself is insolvent. "You appear," said the Lord Mayor, "to have found capital for your customers, instead of their supplying you." That was indeed the principle on which the affairs of the bank appear to have been conducted. The directors did not lend the money to themselves. They did not directly lend it to any one. Up to the retirement of Mr. Chambers they examined the past-due bills; but when Mr. Terry took his place they made "new and stringent regulations," the upshot of which, if we may judge from the working of the bank, appears to have been that all power and responsibility was thrown on the shoulders of the new manager. He was to do nothing wrong; he was to be careful as to what loans he made and what securities he took for them; he was to make true transcripts for the use of the auditors. But whether he did all this well and truly the directors took no pains to ascertain. They left everything in his hands, and contented themselves with watching certain accounts about which they were fearful, with

"anxiety" and "intensity," but without taking the trouble to see how they stood in the books, into which they never looked. One book, indeed, the "cash article-book," appears to have been kept constantly on their table. It ought to have contained an account of all checks and bills *in transitu*, or uncleared, or such as were sent into the country. But though there seems to be reason to believe that a cheque, which had been dishonoured in September, 1861, appeared for twelve months afterwards in this book, Mr. Mechi had no knowledge or suspicion of its containing such an entry. How could he? "I never looked at it," he says. Wonderfully vigilant must the Alderman have been! The book was always on the table, and he never once opened it.

Now when Mr. Mechi, in spite of these facts, says that he devoted to the affairs of the bank more attention than he did to his own business, he states what no man in his senses will believe. Possibly he had faith in Mr. Terry's judgment and honesty, and in the efficacy of the new and stringent regulations made for his direction. But does he content himself with such guarantees in the management of his trade or his farm? He says he is a loser to the extent of £18,000 by the collapse of the Unity Bank. We must say that he deserves his fate. But his loss is no compensation to the shareholders, who relied upon his diligence, and have no flourishing business and no marvellously productive farm to fall back upon. He pledged his word to them to discharge his duties as chairman of their company watchfully. He told them that he and his fellow-directors took no statement of either manager or clerks upon trust, but examined with their own eyes every bill and the particulars of every loan. It appears now, upon his own showing, that neither he nor they did anything of the kind. They examined bills and loans not with their own eyes, but through the eyes of their manager. There was no fraud in this; but there was negligence so gross and incompatible with the safe transaction of business, that the result could not have been more disastrous if the spirit of Innes Cameron or of Colonel Waugh had animated their deliberations.

THE GOVERNMENT AND THE RAILWAYS.

THE Railway world has been somewhat disturbed by a rumour that the Government intend to apply to Parliament for authority to purchase all the railways of the United Kingdom. By an Act passed in 1844, the Executive took power to purchase (after the end of twenty-one years) all railways thenceforth to be made. This Act will come into operation next October, and in 1866, after giving three months' notice to the railway companies formed since 1844, the Government may, with the sanction of Parliament, exercise its power of purchase, on a certain basis of computation provided by the Act. The price is to be twenty-five years' purchase of the profits, to be calculated on the average of the last three years before the purchase. The Act does not affect the large trunk lines, but all the great companies have made important branches and feeders since 1844, and, if the Government took possession of these, the main lines must surrender upon the best terms they could obtain.

The railway interest is omnipotent in Parliament, and if railway directors and shareholders saw in the exercise of the new compulsory powers an attack upon their breeches' pockets and vested interests, no Government would be strong enough to carry out the Act of 1844. There is some reason, however, to believe that railway shareholders would gladly sell their undertakings to the Government upon the terms provided by the Act. Few railway shares are quoted at more than twenty years' purchase on the Stock Exchange, and a railway share which can now be bought for £100 would jump up to £120 or £125 if the Government paid twenty-five years' purchase for it. It is asserted that if the Chancellor of the Exchequer called the shareholders of the London and North-Western Railway Company together, and gave them the option either of letting them alone or buying up their undertaking at twenty-five years' purchase, the shareholders would exclaim with one voice, "Buy us up by all means." The Act is, moreover, elastic, and if a railway company believed that the average of the last three years was no fair criterion of its future profits, it could, under the terms of the Act, demand an arbitration.

If we may assume that the railway interest would not object to the transfer, our statesmen are free to consider whether it is desirable that the Government should obtain possession of the railways, and work them for the advantage of the public. The French Government will, after a certain number of years, obtain possession of every railway in France, and will then be enabled to administer the railway system accord-

ing to the necessities of the public. The English Government, thanks to the foresight of Sir Robert Peel, will shortly have the power of purchasing the greater number of English railways without a breach of faith. Would it be worth the while of the State to pay £125 for every £100 railway share? There is much reason to believe that the outlay would be remunerative, and that if railways were administered like the Post-office under Sir Rowland Hill, the public convenience would be immensely increased, passengers' and goods' traffic largely augmented, and the revenue ultimately the gainer.

The public are well content to find that they have, through the executive, the option of purchasing the railways, and any proposal to repeal the Act of 1844 would have little chance of success. There is a strong under-current of discontent in most districts of the country with respect to the administration of existing railway boards. Their rates of passenger traffic are high, capricious, and unequal. The goods and parcels tariff is often prohibitive or restrictive. The public accommodation is little consulted in the time-table. The development of traffic, which a system of uniformly cheap rates, frequent trains, and punctual observance would insure, is impossible with shareholders, many of them in the receipt of small incomes, who cannot forego a half per cent. in 1864 for the sake of 2 per cent. in 1866. Upon several lines, and notably, as we have shown, on the London and South-Western, great inconvenience is inflicted upon certain districts which do not happen to be influentially represented at the board. The shareholders and the public alike suffer from the neglect of the board to provide a central terminus. We have heard the late Mr. W. J. Chaplin, when chairman of the London and South-Western line, declare that the Company, on every ground of economy and policy, would do wisely to carry their line to London-bridge. The shareholders shrank from the expense. It happens, however, that another company have, at a great outlay, undertaken this work, have made a junction with the London and South-Western at their Waterloo station, and have given them the option of carrying their city traffic to Cannon-street and London-bridge. The London and South-Western passengers might be enjoying at the present moment the advantage and convenience of a direct access to London-bridge, with the prospect before long of access to the city, but for the laches and indifference of the Waterloo board. The Charing Cross Railway does not pay; its traffic does not as yet realise the expectations of its promoters; and it could easily carry along its rails every passenger that the London and South-Western could send to the London-bridge station. Yet the hundreds of city men who come up to town from Surbiton, Richmond, Kew, and the other stations on the trunk line and branches, are every morning "shot out" at Waterloo, and compelled to find their way to the city in cabs and omnibuses as they best can, and under the very arches of the newly-formed railway that would take them where they wish to go.

Such instances of maladministration and indifference to its convenience will lead the public to admire the forethought of Sir Robert Peel, and to insist upon a more enlightened railway management if these undertakings are still to be regulated by private enterprise. If all the railway travellers who have just cause to complain of existing railway arrangements were to join in an agitation to take the management out of the hands of existing boards, the directors of more than one line might regret that they had so often shut their ears to the remonstrances of the travelling public. The country will, at all events, listen to what the Chancellor of the Exchequer may have to say next session in favour of the measure he himself introduced in 1844, without any undue leaning to the side of railway boards or any superstitious faith in existing railway management.

We have good authority for stating that the Executive by no means contemplate a wholesale purchase or actual Government administration of railways. Ours is a Government by party, and patronage is to party the oil that feeds the political lamp. If the Government purchased and worked all the railways, a powerful peer would have to be conciliated by this appointment and an obnoxious M.P. bought off by that. We should have the Hon. John Doodle as First Commissioner of the London and North-Western, with a town house in Euston-square, a shooting box in a midland county, and a place in Scotland where deer-stalking was to be had. There would be Noodle at Waterloo (where he would soon feel quite at home) and Poodle at Paddington. The working expenses of the various lines are estimated at fifteen millions per annum, and a Government would lose its head with so much patronage to administer. A vast stride, moreover, would be taken towards that system of centralization which is wisely regarded with so much suspicion. On the other hand, the Government of the country

is more amenable to public opinion than a railway board. We say unhesitatingly that many absurdities and anomalies are perpetrated by virtually irresponsible railway directors which could not exist if a railway Minister had to get up in the House of Commons to defend him.

A *via media* between actual management by the Government and the present system appears to be possible, and indeed desirable, if we remember the views which led the Cabinet of Sir Robert Peel to propose, and Parliament to sanction, the Act of 1844. The problem was how to bring about a large reduction of fares and rates of traffic with the smallest possible loss on the aggregate receipts of railways. Mr. Gladstone said in 1844 "there is no likelihood that the great experiment of the greatest possible cheapness to the public will be tried under the present system." It never has been tried. If some railway Rowland Hill should arise and propose some cheap and *quasi* uniform passenger and parcel rate, which would cause a temporary diminution but ultimate increase of railway revenue, it could not be carried out, because poor widows and small annuitants could not wait for the promised development of traffic, or even for a certain increase of income. But if the Government exercised the power of purchase, and then leased the railways to district companies under regulations that would ensure a fair trial of the "great experiment of the greatest possible cheapness to the public," in combination with a due regard for the public safety, we should see traffic infinitely developed, and the State recompensed in the course of a few years, as the Post-office has been, by the increased profit of a system of low rates.

Parliament will not be asked to vote money next session for the purchase of railways, but we have reason to believe that the Government will propose the appointment of a parliamentary committee to consider the subject—possibly a joint committee of members of both Houses. A Royal Commission to inquire into the legislation and practice in France and other countries may also be found to be desirable. And railway directors have only themselves to thank if the public should anxiously await the issue of these inquiries in the hope that a more efficient control over our railways may be obtained. We entertain a confident belief that the public pay a great deal more than is necessary to the railway companies, and that some uniform national tariff, which would provide really cheap travelling, would be as brilliant a success in Euston-square as the penny postage has been in St. Martin's-le-Grand.

STONE v. STONE AND APPLETON.

In the sympathy for suffering interests which characterizes our age, the sufferings of remote villages have hardly had fair play. We have a lively sympathy for factory boys and journey-men bakers, but towards old women of both sexes who are condemned, by small incomes or quiet habits, to spend their lives in a contracted circle, we exhibit an indifference which almost throws doubt on the sincerity of our good feeling towards those whom we profess to patronise. For what class has stronger claims on our benevolence than the half-dozen families who make up the respectable population of a country village, and have no stronger interest in life than to watch each other's actions, and feed on the small gossip of the neighbourhood. There is, indeed, only one misery which can exceed what they suffer, and that is the misfortune of having to live amongst them. If it is a pleasing excitement to Rosemary Villa to know that the apprentice of the village grocer has been detected in the act of kissing the grocer's daughter, what a fervour of contentment will pervade the community when it is rumoured that the male inhabitant of Tarquin Lodge has been seen to visit the female recluse of Violet Retreat twice in one week. We have only to suppose that the village is gifted with two medical men, and possesses the reversionary right to an absent husband, to see how extatic will be the agitation of the respectable families if it happens that Tarquin Lodge is in the occupation of one of these practitioners, and that the lady at the Retreat is the temporarily widowed spouse of the expected reversion. She has sprained her ankle, and requires daily attendance from the lodge. What can daily attendance mean? The lady who lives next door to her thinks there must be something wrong. Betsy, who, much against her will, leads a life of single blessedness in the Violet kitchen, does not like "such goings on." Betsy and the lady next door exchange whispers. Betsy and the lady next door repeat to their mutual friends what they have whispered to each other. The scandal gets abroad. Tarquin Lodge has visited Violet Retreat with unlawful intentions. The rival medical man arrests the report *in transitu*. He repeats it to Mrs. Smith; Mrs. Smith, with much regret, confides it to Mrs.

Jones; Mrs. Jones, who is virtuous and indignant, brawls it in the ears of the gentle curate; and the curate, with apostolic meekness and Christian charity, proclaims, as far and wide as the village stretches, that the unhappy occupant of Violet Retreat is no better than she ought to be.

This is not precisely a paraphrase of the case of *Stone v. Stone and Appleton*; but it is very like it. Budleigh Salterton is a village on the sea-coast, a few miles from Exeter. Mrs. Stone is the wife of Captain Stone, late in the East India Company's service, and some time before the year 1859 she took up her residence at Budleigh, while her husband went to India. In 1861 he was invalided and sent home. In the May of that year he returned to his family. He does not appear, from the evidence in the trial which terminated on Thursday, to have been the wisest or most amiable of husbands. But he consorted with his wife till the year was wearing towards its close. About that time a scandal, which was either newly conceived or had been long smouldering in Budleigh, touching his wife's relations towards Mr. Appleton, her medical attendant, suddenly broke out, and Captain Stone rushed to one of her relatives with the intelligence that "Mattie" had "gone to the bad." On the 2nd of January, 1862, Mattie gave birth to a child, and as her husband, by what instigation egged on we know not, had already charged her with adultery, all Budleigh Salterton was up in arms to test whether the baby was a full-grown baby or a baby who had presumed to come into the world before his proper time. Upon this solemn question Mrs. Stone's guilt or innocence mainly turned, and witnesses were called on either side to prove, in the interest of the Captain, that the little mortal was of full growth, and in the interest of Mrs. Stone that by right he should have postponed putting in a social appearance for some seven weeks later. The question of his legitimacy was tried in March, 1863, and the jury then impanelled declared by their verdict that whose ever child he might be, he was not the child of Captain Stone. A new trial was ordered by the full Court, and on Thursday it was decided that Mrs. Stone was free from the charge of adultery.

It is difficult to conceive how such a charge could have been made. Mrs. Stone was already the mother of four children before the birth of her last child, and it was proved that she had commenced her married life with premature confinements. She was a woman in delicate health, and obstetric science and common experience support the probability that a woman who begins in this way will probably continue to be confined before her time. Some portions of the evidence on which her husband based his claim to a divorce are so manifestly disreputable, that one is at a loss to conceive how they could have been presented to a jury. They are, indeed, of so disgusting and improbable a character, that we should not think of recapitulating them to our readers. It is sufficient to say that it is clearly impossible that any woman, not insane, could have acted as Captain Stone's principal witnesses represent his wife as having acted. But the whole tenor of the case testifies to that miserable longing for excitement of any kind that promises relief from the insupportable dulness of village life. Grave and respectable people panting for stimulants at their parlour windows could not see Mrs. Stone's medical attendant coming daily to visit her in the absence of her husband without concluding that something dreadful was going on. They waylaid her lightest expressions, and extracted from them a meaning favourable to their scandalous speculations. Gossip after gossip came and looked at her baby, and concluded, according to their ill-will or good-will, either that it was full-grown or premature. In the exciting contest of opinions Budleigh Salterton thrilled with delight. Parsons and doctors, matrons and spinsters, kitchen-maids and old women of the stronger sex, all inspected the baby, ranged themselves on either side of the case, and swore point blank that it was full-grown or not full-grown. If from these village oracles we turn to the evidence of the first obstetric authorities, we find that nothing on earth is more uncertain than the maturity or immaturity of a child between seven and nine months' growth. The *indicia* vary so much that Dr. Tyler Smith said, when a lady's reputation was at stake, he would decline to give any opinion at all, or, if he did give any, it would be with so many reservations and exceptions, that nothing certain could be concluded from it. Yet this was the main fact on which Captain Stone could, with any appearance of right, found his claim to a divorce. In truth, he and his wife both fell victims to the inanity of Budleigh Salterton existence. The village wanted something to stir its blood, and it lighted on Mr. Appleton's professional visits to Mrs. Stone. Her husband was absent in India. There were two medical practitioners

ministering to its physical sufferings. One of them was in frequent attendance on the temporary widow, and it concluded, in a Christian spirit, that "something must be wrong." There no greater stimulant to lazy blood than scandal. Budleigh Salterton grasped at its opportunity, and Captain Stone—his wife, unhappily, also—fell a victim to its thirst for something to talk about.

THE POOR AT CHRISTMAS.

CHRISTMAS-BOXES are not now the tax which they used to be, and our doors are not assailed on boxing Monday by the legitimate dustman, the old-established sweep, the duly authorized scavenger, and the *bonâ fide* lamplighter, with a dozen other parochial institutions who, at the festive period of Christmas, once maintained the right to levy black mail upon our purses. To many householders the reform has been a substantial relief, to others the abatement of a nuisance. The postman, indeed, still puts in his claim, and it is one which we are all glad to recognise both for the pleasant tidings—with some unpleasant ones it is true—which he brings one or other of us daily, and because there is a general sympathy for his poor feet and his poor pay. But having got rid of a tax which many paid who could not afford it rather than see a reproachful memorandum chalked upon their door-posts, might it not be well for those who can afford it to revive an old custom in favour of new clients. There are few neighbourhoods in which there is not some charity or other pining for want of funds, or which, if not in this hapless state, could, and would gladly, administer contributions sent for such a purpose, so as to bring a share, though small, of the good cheer of Christmas, into desolate homes. Bethnal-green, for instance, has reminded us often during the year which is closing, what a stiff battle for life many of its inhabitants have to fight, even in summer, and what a hopeless one, too. There is no clergyman, we are sure, there, or in any other district of London, who would not have his appetite sharpened for his own Christmas dinner, if he were enabled to put something substantial on the tables of many of his parishioners, which he knows will otherwise be bare. Nor will we doubt that a good many appetites would be lost if people sitting down to their ample feasts could have suddenly revealed to them the hundreds who will celebrate this Christmas on empty stomachs unless some suggestion similar to the one we are making is carried out.

THE PRINCESS DJEMILA.

ON the authority of a morning contemporary we repeated in a recent number the story of the murder of one of her slaves by the Princess Djemila, daughter of the late Sultan, and the death of her husband, Mahmoud Jelladin Pasha, occasioned either by the shock of finding the head of the slave under his dish cover, or by poison mixed with some sherbet which he had drunk before sitting down to dinner, of course by direction of the Princess. We are glad to see that the horrible story has been officially contradicted, and that our contemporary has withdrawn it. And, having helped to give it currency, we are happy now to do our part in restoring her head to the slave, his life to Mahmoud Jelladin Pasha, and her fair fame to the abominably calumniated Princess.

MRS. LONGWORTH YELVERTON.

THIS lady has been again unfortunate in her attempt to achieve the doubtful honour of being recognised as Major Yelverton's wife. The judges of the first division of the Court of Session have decided that it is their duty to apply the judgment of the House of Lords, in spite of the fresh evidence she has tendered. This fresh evidence goes to make out an admission of his marriage made by the major to his deceased brother, Frederick Yelverton, who died in February, 1860. In support of the motion to suspend judgment and allow a condensation of *res noviter* to be received and added to the record, two affidavits were put in. One was sworn by William Biggs, of Bannagher, who declared that he fully and distinctly remembered Frederick Yelverton frequently making the assertion that William had "acknowledged to him, the said Frederick, that said Scotch marriage had really taken place between him, William Charles Yelverton, and the said Theresa Longworth." The other affidavit was sworn by the Rev. E. G. Campbell, rector of Kilderry, in the diocese of Ossory, who stated that he had visited, as a clergyman, a woman named Sarah Mallins, who, on her death-bed, informed him that she had been a servant in the family of Frederick Yelverton at the time of his death, and that he then expressed in her hearing contrition for the part he had taken in aiding Major Yelverton to set aside his first marriage, and that she had heard Frederick say to his brother, "We are ruined by your marriage with Mistress Forbes. How could you take her after reading the marriage service with Miss Longworth in Scotland, and afterwards being married again in Ireland?" and that Major Yelverton replied, "It is a sad thing to have acted so, but it can't be helped now. When I read that marriage service with her I had fully resolved to have her as my wife, and it was to satisfy her importunities I renewed it again in Ireland. I had no thought of deserting her then, or to marry Mistress Forbes, or anybody." The Rev. Mr. Campbell vouches for the candour with which Sarah Mallins made this statement, and for his own accurate recollection of her words. The judges, however, thought that,

while there was no precedent for the admission of this evidence, it was not in itself strong enough to warrant them in deviating from the course they had been directed to follow by the House of Lords. Thus unless the House itself on application admits the evidence, Mrs. Yelverton's last chance appears to be the motion to refer the whole case to the oath of the defender, the major. If the court grants this motion, Major Yelverton will be put to his oath whether he has married Miss Longworth or not. What hope she may found upon his veracity when thus tested it is not for us to say.

CAPTAIN FOWKE'S PALACE.

On Monday the last remaining portion of the Great Exhibition building of 1862 was demolished by a party of sappers of the Royal Engineers. *Sic transit gloria mundi.* It is little more than two years since this building was the centre towards which, from all parts of the country and the Continent, there flowed daily a stream of sightseers who, if it were not all that could be desired, found under its domes a wonderful collection of the treasures of art and science and industry. These have long since been scattered, and now, after successive minings and explosions, there is nothing of their old home left except its ruins and Mr. Morrish's refreshment-rooms. This is the second grand fabric which we have reared and pulled to pieces. Is this to be the fate of all future buildings for international exhibition? The year 1872 may bring us another of these delightful and civilizing gatherings. Surely in the meantime it would be well to consider whether, when at infinite pains and cost we have created a palace capable of containing the choicest specimens of the world's industry, we can find no better use for it, when the special occasion out of which it arose has been satisfied, but to pull it down.

THE MATLOCK WILL CASE.

OUR readers will remember the name of Mr. George Else and the history of the three codicils to the will of Mr. Nuttall, of Matlock, which were contested before three special juries, and finally disposed of as not genuine. By each of these codicils, Mr. Else took a larger share in the property of the testator; but the circumstances under which they were found completely negatived, to any reasonable mind, the hypothesis of their validity. Some weeks after the last of the three trials, Mr. Else sold off the goods and chattels which had been in Mr. Nuttall's house since his decease, and the bed in which he died was knocked down to a Mr. Crofts, Mr. Else's brother-in-law. Crofts, before the bed left the house, pulled it to pieces. In doing this a bundle of papers fell out, which was immediately handed over to a solicitor, who happened to be in the room. These papers confirmed the codicils which had been declared to be not genuine. But here again the circumstances under which the papers came to light were unsatisfactory, and the papers themselves equally so. One memorandum directed whoever should find it to go to the testator's tool-house, the place in which the third disputed codicil was found, and that the codicil would be found there—as it had been. The memorandum also pointed out the place where the two other codicils would be found—the place whence the papers amongst which they were said to have been found had been taken. Upon the strength of these papers application was made on Saturday last to the Master of the Rolls to reopen the case; but his honour refused to make the order on the petition as prayed, on the ground that the case was one for a jury, and that if it must come again before a jury it must do so by the direction of some other tribunal.

LOSS OF A SHIP IN THE CHANNEL.

It is to be feared that the *Floating Light*, bound from Bombay to Liverpool with a cargo on board worth upwards of £200,000, has been lost. Last week a seaman's chest drifted ashore on the Pembroke coast, together with several bales of cotton and other articles. Some papers in the box showed that it belonged to some one of the name of Davies. The list of ships at sea was consulted, in order to find out what vessel was carrying cotton. The result was that the owners of the *Floating Light* were communicated with, and it was ascertained that a seaman of the name of Davies was one of her crew, and that the marks on the cotton were the same as those mentioned in the manifest as having been shipped on board of her at Bombay. Another reason for suspecting that she has either been sunk or wrecked, is, that a round carved piece of wood, with gilded letters upon it, "Floating Light," the "t" only missing, has been found on the same coast. More cotton has likewise been washed ashore. The supposed loss has occasioned much excitement, especially among those immediately concerned. Fortunately for the possessors (Messrs. Kennedy, of Liverpool) the ship was insured in London, Liverpool, and Glasgow.

CABMEN AND THEIR GRIEVANCES.

THE cabmen have been holding a meeting to agitate the redress of their grievances. It would be well if they would consider those which they commit as well as those which they suffer. It is only so recently as the 2nd inst. that a Mrs. Margaret Ann Taylor, aged 72, was knocked down by the shaft of a Hansom, which was driven suddenly round a corner at the rate of twelve miles an hour. One of the wheels passed over her body, but the driver seeing what

he had done, drove on, though ordered by the policeman to stop, at a speed of sixteen miles an hour. The constable pursued him, but being outstripped, returned and found the deceased in a chemist's shop, apparently dead. The cabman has since been arrested, and on Monday was brought before the coroner, Dr. Lankester. The plea was urged in his defence, that the horse had "bolted, and that he lost control over it." But the jury were not to be hoodwinked, and they returned a verdict of "manslaughter." This is not a solitary instance of death caused by the reckless driving of cabmen, and especially of the drivers of Hansom cabs. Partly this may arise from the greater speed at which they can travel, and the consciousness on their part that they are, for this reason, selected by passengers to whom time is money. But their advantage in this respect involves the duty of more circumspect driving. In the case before us the man's misconduct was very gross, and it is to be hoped that he will receive the punishment he has so richly merited.

THE CHURCH.

THE REREDOS AT TORQUAY.

THE English Church Union of Exeter is not pleased with the venerable Bishop of that name about the reredos recently erected in the Church of St. John, in Torquay. Our readers may naturally ask what is a "reredos." As to its aim, it is simply an ingenious contrivance lately devised for evading the legal liabilities of a crucifix as a church ornament, but yet, for all practical purposes, equivalent to the best of crucifixes. A reredos, as to the thing, is a sculptured representation of some scriptural event set as an altar-piece in the chancel wall at the back of, and in close proximity to, the altar. And the reredos at Torquay is a sculptured representation of this kind of the Crucifixion of the Saviour, intended visibly and tangibly to remind the congregation of St. John's of the great event of the Redemption, exactly as the huge gilt crucifix, which, like Nebuchadnezzar's golden image, forms the most conspicuous object in All Saints' Church, Margaret-street, is supposed to do. The Church of St. John has been lately under repair, the chief improvement effected being the addition of a new chancel. Among the offerings for this chancel was this reredos, a gift from two parishioners, a sculpture representing the Crucifixion, in which stood forth in bold relief six figures round the cross, and one on it representing the Saviour. The chancel was to be consecrated on last All Saints' Day; and on the Bishop of Jamaica, acting for the aged Bishop of the diocese, this duty devolved.

This colonial prelate, on seeing the reredos previous to the time of consecration, objected to it as being a "crucifix." One, at least, of the churchwardens, whose name is so good that the best results may be expected from it, was of the same opinion as the Bishop of Jamaica, and also objected to the idol. Mr. Churchwarden Toogood entered at once into communication with the Bishop of Exeter, and the venerable prelate of the diocese, furnished with information by the Bishop of Jamaica and Mr. Toogood, immediately determined on the course he should follow. He refused to license the building for divine service until an assurance were given him by the incumbent that the reredos "should be removed as soon as possible, and in the meantime should be concealed." When it is remembered how deeply versed Dr. Phillpotts has always proved himself to be in the laws of the Church, as well as accurate in his statements of facts, the opinion which he has put on record as to this Torquay image must carry with it a weight almost equal to that of a judicial sentence. He considers that "the very name of reredos shows that it is a part of, or immediately connected with, the holy table, and that the whole has the appearance of belonging to the holy table when seen at a distance." It is evident from these words that this sculpture must have presented a very imposing appearance, and that it was calculated to make a deep impression on the minds of persons in any degree superstitiously susceptible. The bishop himself had not seen it; his great age, and the infirmities attendant upon age, rendered it unsafe in the winter season of the year to make the necessary inspection. But there can be no reason to doubt that the information, as to the facts of the case at least, furnished by the Bishop of Jamaica and Mr. Toogood was perfectly reliable. The question then is—where and when is sculpture of this kind illegal in a church? On this point Dr. Phillpotts says that the sculpture itself may not be decidedly adverse to the letter of any law, but that still it must be a matter of grave doubt for which there can be no solution less than that of a judicial decision as to "whether a sculptured representation of the crucifixion, being not merely a crucifix, be admissible in immediate juxtaposition with the altar." Without waiting for an adjudication of this point, certain "specialties of this unhappy parish" present themselves to his mind, and on these he considers himself justified in coming to an immediate decision in refusing consecration. One of these is, that St. John's "is a church the services of which have long excited grave suspicions in the minds of moderate men." Another, "the unhappy coincidence" of more than one clergyman connected with this church having seceded to Rome. A third, after considerations which have proved that sermons of an offensive character have been preached in the church—though not by the incumbent—calling on the parishioners to oppose the removal of the reredos. All of which grounds of hesitation the Bishop of Exeter sums up by saying—

"Several matters have occurred greatly strengthening the necessity of my caution, and none of an opposite tendency."

In the decision at which the Bishop of Exeter has thus arrived, no person can accuse him of being influenced by any predilections for the puritanical party or their opinions. As his antecedents all point in the opposite direction, it may be safely inferred that he is seriously alarmed by the extremes to which this mediæval reverence for imagery and decoration is being carried, and that he considers it his duty to raise a warning voice against such extravagances. If there be anything which is calculated to justify us in coming to this conclusion, it is to be found in the resolutions agreed to, on the 1st of December, by the committee of the Exeter branch of the English Church Union. The "intolerance of Puritanism" is accused by these gentlemen of "robbing the faithful" of this piece of sculpture; like representations to which, they allege, have been sanctioned, as "fitting and accordant with law" by the Bishops of Oxford, Winchester, Worcester, and Gloucester. Admit that they have such high approval, what more does the fact prove than that four bishops of the Church of England are of an opinion different from that of Dr. Phillpotts? Which of the two parties is most likely to be right is another question; but we have already given the grounds of the opinion of one of them. Another resolution expresses a hope that even the Bishop will stultify himself by undoing his own work in "sparing no efforts to preserve against all assaults a monument of individual munificence and artistic skill which all Catholic Christians should regard with grateful and loving admiration." What else is this but an implied censure on the venerable prelate—whether it be intended or not—for not himself paying to the Torquay reredos the due tribute of "grateful and loving admiration." And then what are the grounds on which this admiration, so easily turned into adoration, is asked? Simply, that they believe that "piety is aided, and devotion quickened, by the exhibition, before the eyes of the youthful and the penitent, as depicted by the painter or the sculptor." To exclude these lofty efforts of human genius from the sanctuary is "fanatical and uncatholic;" to admit them "inspires the soul with humility, devotion, and love." What are these but the very arguments used by Roman Catholics to justify the image worship of their Church. No properly-informed member of the Roman Communion would admit for a moment that he worshipped an image as an image. He would contend that he used it only as an aid to his imagination, and a refresher of his memory, in order to excite "humility, devotion, and love;" and that, only in that sense, he "adores" or "venerates" it. There is no difference, in principle, between the arguments in the two cases. The only difference there is consists in the Church of Rome being more consistent in following out their principle, in not mincing matters, and in giving us the genuine article instead of its feeble counterfeit. The brazen serpent of Moses was a good thing in its day and did good work for Israel; and it was therefore for many years preserved by the people as a gracious memorial of the past. But when, in later times, veneration for this relic went beyond its proper bounds and engendered idolatry, it was broken into pieces, as an accursed thing, by King Hezekiah; and sacred history records his praises for the deed. Perhaps, the Bishop of Exeter, who is neither "fanatical nor uncatholic," sees looming in the distance another Nehushtan in this Torquay reredos, and in prophetic wisdom is determined not to give it even the chance, not to mention the opportunity, of doing mischief.

A LATIN PRAYER-BOOK.

THE Counsels of the Society for the Promotion of Christian Knowledge have been lately much agitated about a Latin version of the English Prayer-book. What a version of the kind is exactly wanted for does not clearly appear. We can understand a Greek, or a Russian, or a Turkish "Book of Common Prayer," or one in the Chinese, the Tamil, or the Zulu language; but there are no people now living in the world, outside the priesthood of Papal Rome, who speak the language of the ancient imperial city, and could in order to "pray with the understanding," require a Latin Prayer-book of the Church of England. Perhaps it is only intended as a literary curiosity, or, as the English Liturgy is being translated into all possible languages, it may be required merely to complete a list. It might, indeed, prospectively look forward to some future day when the present *furor* for mediæval ceremonies, music, vestments, ornaments, &c., will culminate in some attempt to introduce a Latin Communion Service, or Mass, into the Church of England; and then indeed this Latin Prayer-book would be found very conveniently at hand for such a purpose. But this can scarcely be the object of the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge. If it be, the society's name is rather a misnomer. It is remarkable, however, that the project is looked on with extreme favour by the party in the Church, whose leanings are in the mediæval direction. Some think that, instead of the proposed new version of the Psalms by Professor Jacobson in Ciceronian Latin, the Vulgate rendering should be adopted in its entirety. But to this Dr. Hussy justly objected that it would be dreadful if "fall down before His footstool, for He is holy," were rendered "*Adorate scabellum Ejus quoniam Sanctum est.*" On the other hand, it is said that a correct Latin rendering of such a passage as, "or ever your pots be made hot with thorns," would be stark nonsense. It is also argued with much apparent cogency, that as our English Collects are translations

from the old Latin prayers of the Church, it would be much the best plan to revert to these originals. Not to revert to them, but in their place to adopt a new version of even Ciceronian Latinity, could only be intended to disguise the Pope's own children so that he could not possibly again recognise them after they have passed through this Medean cauldron of Dr. Jacobson. If this latter surmise be right, it is rather a poor compliment to the Pope's Latin; but, in that case, the scheme of the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge, if it succeeds in perplexing his Holiness, may not be a bad one. Straws show how the wind blows; and as the opposite currents of feeling at work on this proposed Latin version of the Prayer-book are indicated by many infallible signs, we think that the project were much better dropped altogether than further persisted in.

BIBLE COLPORTAGE IN TURKEY.

EARL RUSSELL, on the part of her Majesty's Government, has, in one particular, interposed to have the provisions of the Hatti Humayoun carried out in the Turkish dominions. A despatch from his Lordship to Sir Henry Bulwer, bearing date the 17th of August last, has just been published in the *Record*, relative to the sale of Bibles in Turkey, not only in shops, but also by the practice of colportage, or hawking. It will be remembered that, immediately after the late arrests that were made in Constantinople in connection with Missionary operations, the depôt of the Bible Society was closed; and that, when it was reopened, the sale of the Bible, otherwise than in depôts or shops, was forbidden. This restriction was, at the time, justly complained of as a grievance, since none of the acts of indiscretion complained of by the Turkish authorities had any connection with the Bible society. Therefore, the demand to restore colportage was considered just, and such as there could be no reasonable ground of objection to grant. "The society is entitled," says Earl Russell, "to the fullest liberty of disposing of the Bible by sale or otherwise throughout the Turkish empire." The Turkish Government, he adds, "does not dispute this right," and therefore "the question is narrowed to the manner in which the distribution shall be carried on." For the sake of several million Christians scattered through Turkey, who are entitled by the Hatti Humayoun to the free exercise of their religion, the manner of colportage is necessary, because it would be "impossible to set up shops for the sale of Bibles everywhere." And then as to the feelings of the Turks, so far are they from having any aversion or repugnance to the Bible, that they acknowledge it to contain the older divine revelations, and they even kiss it with reverence when it is offered to them for sale. On these grounds, the British Ambassador is instructed to urge the Government of the Sultan to allow the free distribution of the Bible by colporteurs in Turkey, as "an essential and indispensable part of the liberty guaranteed by the Hatti Humayoun." Such is the substance of this despatch of the Foreign Secretary's; and there can be very little room for doubting that a demand so moderate and so reasonable will be granted. This is, however, a very different thing from a right claimed to be allowed to preach or teach controversially on the Mahomedan religion, and to distribute controversial tracts. On these latter points his lordship is silent, and there is not much probability that he will cease to remain so.

THE CHAPLAIN OF THE "RESISTANCE."

It is stated that the Admiralty has arrived at a decision in the case of the late arbitrary proceedings of the captain of the *Resistance*, hostile to the Rev. Mr. Gutteress. This hardly-treated chaplain had forwarded a detailed statement of his grievances to the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty, but the only result has been that their lordships, without any direct reply to Mr. Gutteress, have ordered him to be severely reprimanded in the presence of the admiral, captain, commander, and lieutenant, and have moreover complimented the admiral and captain on their *forbearance*! Mr. Gutteress has much cause to be thankful for this chastening, and no doubt the Admiralty will yet praise his resignation under it as fervently as they have extolled Captain Chamberlain's "*forbearance*." Their lordships certainly expect that one of the first fruits of this decision will be a large accession to the number of candidates for admission into the ministry of "the Church in the Navy."

MR. VOISEY AND THE ARCHBISHOP.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE "LONDON REVIEW."

SIR,—I happened, a few days ago, to be in a company in which the letter addressed by the Rev. Charles Voisey, incumbent of Healaugh, near Tadcaster, to the Archbishop of Canterbury, was read for the edification of those present. The letter of Mr. Voisey (as most of your readers will be aware) referred the Archbishop to the statement, contained in his primary charge, that "the exact words of the Decalogue were dictated"—apparently meaning that they were dictated to Moses, to be inserted in the Pentateuch. On this, Mr. Voisey respectfully reminds the Archbishop that there were two copies of the Decalogue in Scripture, and that these two copies varied from each other; and, under these circumstances, the Yorkshire clergyman requests to be informed in which of the two copies of the Decalogue the "exact words" were contained.

To this request for an elucidation of the Archbishop's meaning, Dr.

Longley replied by simply acknowledging the receipt of Mr. Voisey's letter.

In the company to which I have alluded, when the reading of Mr. Voisey's letter was completed, a short pause was made to give an opportunity for an expression of opinion. This, upon the whole, was decidedly favourable, and such expressions as the following were heard on all sides:—"A capital hit the parson has made!" "Very proper letter!" "Respectful in terms; but winding up with the point of an epigram!" "I should like to hear what Dr. Longley will answer!"

When the curt reply (if it can be called such) of Dr. Longley was read, the bewildered astonishment and disappointment of the persons present was perfectly ludicrous. After the first surprise had subsided, a remark was made, which seemed to express the general sentiments of the party. "This," said the speaker, "will never do: of all the tactics which the clergy can adopt with the Colenseans, that of 'Church don't answer' will be found the most prejudicial themselves, and the most detrimental to Anglican Christianity."

Now, sir, it is not at all clear to me that the Archbishop was really to blame on this occasion. He saw (as every one must see) that Mr. Voisey's letter was (however plausible in terms) merely an arrow cleverly shot from the sceptical Arbalist of the school of Tübingen. He knew that a reply on his part might produce a rejoinder; that this rejoinder might call for a second reply; and that thus he might become involved in a controversy (derogatory to an English prelate) with a clergyman, who, after signing the Thirty-nine Articles, had too evidently enrolled himself under a sceptical standard.

Nor is it at all evident that to respond, as from the Delphic tripod, to all persons agitated by religious doubts forms any part of the duties which justly fall upon an English prelate. The editor of a newspaper may, if he pleases, open a column for the purpose of answering the questions of all correspondents, *in omni scibili, et de quolibet ente*. But the prelate who should adopt a similar principle with respect to religious questions, would soon find that his oracular responses would sadly interfere with his episcopal duties.

But, as an impression seems really to prevail that the Archbishop found himself in a difficulty, and was pinned by the Clerk of Healaugh within the horns of a dilemma, it seems desirable that this erroneous opinion should be corrected.

There are several replies which may be offered to the Healaugh difficulty, and more than one which might be termed orthodox.

We, of course, know what Tübingen (the school from which Mr. Voisey's theology appears to be derived) would offer as a solution for the variance between the copies of the Decalogue. The Pentateuch (it would say) is a mere collection of traditions and myths, compiled by more than one person, at a period long after the time of Moses. This being the case, we are not to feel surprised if discrepancies occur. Neither of the two copies possesses any divine authority:—neither can boast of historic truth, in the relation of the phenomena, by which the delivery of the Decalogue is said to have been accompanied.

Another reply (which could not be called heterodox, since the late decisions in the Court of Arches), might be—that the Pentateuch, though substantially the composition of Moses, has been defaced by various unauthorized interpolations, between the time of the Babylonian captivity and the birth of Christ;—that the passage, Exod. xx. 2 (together with the opening chapters of Genesis, to which it refers), is such an interpolation;—and that the passage, Deut. v. 15, was that really contained in the copy of the Decalogue deposited in the Ark of the Covenant.

The object of such a solution would, of course, be to obviate the objections which science presents to the earlier chapters of Genesis. It is not the ground which the Church would be likely to take from choice; but it is that to which it may eventually be driven.

What appears, however, to me the solution most likely to meet with general acceptance among the orthodox is this:—the copy of the Decalogue, contained in Exodus xx. 1–17, is that which is to be received as the *verbatim* copy, if either is to be so taken. The book of Deuteronomy is a repetition of the Law, with new additions, to render it complete. The Decalogue, in this book, is not to be treated as intended for a servile copy of the original, but merely as conveying its sense and spirit. In verse 15, Moses gives a new reason (written under Divine inspiration) for the consecration of the seventh day; and this new reason in no respect clashes with the former one, to which it is merely an addition, inserted for the purpose of corroboration.

No one acquainted with Hebrew phraseology will construe the expression in Deut. v. 22, too literally:—such a mode of interpretation would shake the authority of the Bible to its foundations; besides that, it would show a profound ignorance of the style of the Oriental nations.

Whatever may be the result of the discussion, the discrepancy between Exodus xx. 11, and Deut. v. 15, has been the subject of frequent remark since the time of the mediæval Rabbins.—Mr. Voisey neither claims, nor is entitled to, the slightest merit for pointing it out; though no one can deny that he has directed a clever shaft against the language of the Archbishop's charge.

HENRY CROSSLEY.

INCOMES OF THE CLERGY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE "LONDON REVIEW."

SIR,—Some 8,000 out of our 12,000 benefices in the Church of England do not offer an income of more than £300 per annum for the incumbent; and of these 8,000, about 5,000 do not secure to him £200 per annum. If the total value of the aggregate annual incomes of the benefices of the Church of England were divided equally among all the incumbents, the result would be about £250 per annum for each; if among all the clergy, including the assistant-curates, it would be considerably less than £200 per annum for each.

Of these insufficiently-endowed benefices a very large proportion are in the rural districts, the parishes severally containing a very

small population, and extending not unfrequently over a small area. The parishioners would, in most cases, be as well cared for as now if two or more of these parishes, when contiguous, were amalgamated into one; or if one such small parish was incorporated with an adjacent larger one, on the next voidance, provided that in no case a parish was in this way formed with more than 1,000 souls, or of more than about 5,000 or 6,000 acres.

The patrons of the several amalgamated benefices might nominate to the improved benefice in turn, the survivor of the clergymen who were incumbents at the time of the amalgamation being the first to enjoy the increased income; which would be the first turn of the patron by whom he had been nominated. When three benefices had been amalgamated, the patrons, after that turn first mentioned, might present according to the alphabetical order of the names of the several parishes. If, of two benefices amalgamated, the income of A. was double of that of B., then the patron of A. should have two turns of nomination to one by the patron of B. Patrons might exchange advowsons to facilitate the arrangement, which would result in an improvement of their property, inasmuch as the right to nominate to a *Living* of from £400 to £600 per annum would be of more value than the right to nominate to three *Starvings* of from £100 to £150 or £200 per annum each.

The incumbent of the amalgamated parishes would of course himself conduct one service on each Sunday, or other holy day morning, afternoon, or evening in each of the churches within his benefice, and he would celebrate the holy communion in each in succession. He would administer holy baptism, solemnize holy matrimony, and conduct churchings and burials, as required, in the church which was on each occasion the most convenient to the parishioners. He might depute a layman to conduct a morning, afternoon, or evening function on Sundays and at other times, and to administer a baptism, in the church or churches from which he was himself unavoidably absent, because officiating in one of the other churches.

The layman might be trusted to read a sermon from one of the numerous collections of sermons which are now published at so cheap a rate; or in some instances a layman might be authorized by the bishop to preach or to catechize, as the late King of Honolulu was authorized to do by the bishop of that see, and as is done in the colonies and in our foreign possessions. Even the Church of Rome allows laymen to preach, and in *Nôtre Dame* in Paris. At present, the Church of England, on the average, provides only one minister, non-university men and literates of every kind included, for every 6,000 souls. To provide one clergyman for every 1,000 souls, the bishops must admit about 15,000 more men into Holy Orders. The universities or the upper strata of society cannot meet such a demand. Men must be admitted from every stratum of the middle classes, and some even from the classes below the level. Hence the importance of setting free as many men who have taken university honours as possible for work in the towns.

It would be a judicious modification of the Pluralities Act if it were made no longer illegal for the same incumbent to hold simultaneously two adjoining benefices, provided that together they did not contain more than 1,000 souls, or occupy an area of more than about nine square miles. By the arrangements I propose, about 3,000 men of university education might, in the course of a few years, be spared from the rural districts for work in the towns; which would be an advantage, so long as it is difficult to obtain in any large numbers men of more than average abilities and attainments as candidates for Holy Orders. If the bishops could confer deacon's orders on men of faith and good life who accept the Church's doctrine, requiring no higher standard of literary and general attainments than is common among the professional men and the larger shopkeepers and the better educated farmers in the rural parishes, and allowing the deacon to continue to maintain himself by his secular calling, then there would be comparatively few cases in which it would be necessary to authorize a layman to act as above suggested.

If the proposals of this letter were carried out, or some other similar one, an insufficiently-endowed benefice in the rural districts would become a rare exception, and an abundance of highly-educated and other clergymen would be provided for the town populations.

I am, Sir, your obedient servant,

EXPERIENCE.

A TABERNACLE FOR BROTHER IGNATIUS.—Brother Spurgeon is likely soon to have a formidable rival in the pseudo-monk of Norwich. Mr. Lyne, evidently chagrined at the cold shoulder which the High Church Clergy have given him, writes a letter, in satire no doubt, to the *Norfolk News*, threatening to turn the head of his vessel to the opposite point of the ecclesiastical compass. He says:—"We must have a large 'Tabernacle,' built as soon as possible, and as our High Church friends altogether decline to assist us, except by clapping and applauding at our lectures, and making a great noise—as, I say, these will not assist to raise a seemly Convent Chapel—we must look to our Protestant and Dissenting friends (and we have many) to build a tabernacle or a meeting-house, call it whatever you like, in which to sing hymns to God and talk to sinners of the Saviour, even Jesus."

THE POPE A SPOILER OF MONASTERIES.—The *Corriere delle Marche* states that the Roman Government, in order to meet the payment of the interest on its loan, has sold the property of the Hospital Santo-Spirito, one of the most important in Rome, and possessing a great part of the land between that city and Civita Vecchia. The price received was 500,000 Roman crowns (£100,000). The *Corriere* observes that after such a measure the Holy See can no longer remonstrate against the seizure of the property of the convents, the owners of which are to receive a pension proportioned to their monastic rank.

THE FUTURE OF THE "FREE CHURCH OF SOUTH AFRICA."—The following extract from the recently published journal of the Bishop of Capetown, happily illustrates the principle that extremes meet:—"Called on Mr. Pilcher, the Wesleyan Superintendent in this colony,

who had written to thank me for 'the very decided, noble, and persevering stand which I had made in defence of those hallowed doctrines which were the glory of the fathers of the Reformation, and remain the glory of the Church of England and the Protestant church at large.' He expressed himself very warmly when I told him that if my brother bishops would act with me, I could, if a civil court thrust back an unbelieving bishop upon this Church, return and consecrate a pastor for the diocese in its cathedral church, and, if driven out of that, would then do so under the shelter of a tree. The old gentleman expressed great satisfaction, and said with what pleasure he would come up and raise the psalm tune."

THE GREEK CHURCH IN SYRIA.—The progress made by the Greek Church in Syria has not received the attention which it deserves. A man cannot ride from Damascus to Hebron without seeing that the Latin Church is receding, the Greek Church advancing, in that country—the only church-building in Syria being done by the Greek communion. It has erected the New Jerusalem. It has raised a cross on the dome of the Holy Sepulchre. It is buying land on all sides; cultivating olives and vines, and making its labour pay. It is multiplying its convents, and offering a rude kind of protectorate of the fellahin. In a word, it is taking possession of the land.—*John Bull.*

THE REV. MR. HILLYARD.—The chaplain of the Norwich Workhouse has written to the Poor-law Commissioners in Whitehall, refusing to acknowledge the justice of their decision in his case, and demanding of them a formal dismissal from the chaplaincy. The local guardians have, in consequence, asked the Commissioners to declare the office of chaplain vacant as soon as possible.

PETER'S PENCE.—It is said that there has been a great falling off latterly in this source of Papal revenue. The income at the commencement was 4,000 Roman crowns a month; it afterwards fell to 2,000, and is still decreasing. November only gave 700 crowns, in which are included the offerings from Tuscany.

The French bishops have ordered a perpetual "adoration of the Holy Sacrament" to the end that Heaven may be pleased to preserve the temporal power of the Pope.

FINE ARTS.

MUSIC.

The approach of Christmas brings with it the lull in musical affairs usual at this period. The chief event of the week has been the commencement of the season (the fifth) of the National Choral Society, the first concert of which took place at Exeter Hall on Wednesday, the oratorio being Mendelssohn's "Elijah." The progress of this society has been so great and rapid, considering its recent establishment, as to render it now a powerful rival to the Sacred Harmonic Society. If Mr. Martin desires to gain an advantage over the older institution, he should establish a speciality by producing some of the many great works which have been so long shelved. His opening performance of "Elijah" displayed a marked improvement in the singing of the numerous choir which he conducts—both in general precision and in the contrasts of light and shade. Miss Louisa Pyne's refined style and unaffected expression were heard to such advantage as to make it matter of regret that she does not oftener appear as an oratorio singer. Mr. Sims Reeves was singing in his best manner, and Mr. Lewis Thomas was efficient in the music of the prophet. The first of the Christmas performances of the "Messiah" by the Sacred Harmonic Society was to take place yesterday—the second is announced for Friday next—while that by the National Choral Society is fixed for Wednesday next.

There has been nothing of special interest at either of the Operahouses during the week—the Royal English Opera Company had announced an adaptation of Gounod's "Le Médecin malgré lui," which, however, has been postponed until after the production of the pantomime. At both houses the preparation of this form of Christmas entertainment seems to absorb the present consideration of the management.

The Crystal Palace Saturday Concerts have usually some special feature of interest—thus, last week's programme announced Spohr's little-known symphony, the "Seasons:" not one of the master's happiest productions, but yet well worth a hearing. It was a mistake, however, to call it a "descriptive" symphony. Music may and can be illustrative, characteristic, suggestive; but it is quite beyond and apart from the province of the art to describe. For this week's concert Madame Grisi is announced to sing for the first time at these entertainments.

The scheme of the new Philharmonic Concerts is issued—the dates being fixed for April 5, 26, May 10, 24, and June 14. The list of solo singers and instrumentalists is particularly strong. Among the latter is the name of Madame Schumann, whose few flying visits to this country have not sufficiently made her known here as one of the very few living classical pianists.

From Florence we hear great accounts of a young English tenor singer, Mr. Hohler, who has quitted the civil service and is about to make his *début* at Venice. With the advantage of being an educated gentleman (which has not hitherto been an invariable rule among English stage singers), Mr. Hohler is said to possess a voice of exquisite sympathetic quality and facile flexibility, and an agreeable personal presence. If the high opinions that have been expressed (among others by Rossini) of this gentleman's qualifications are well founded, a career of exceptional success may be anticipated for him.

NEW MUSICAL PUBLICATIONS.

THE new edition of Stephen Heller's "Pianoforte Studies," recently issued by Messrs. Ashdown & Parry, of Hanover-square, deserves special notice as a series of the most charming productions in this style that have appeared since the studies of Chopin and Henselt. The term "study," as applied to compositions designed for the improvement of the student, no doubt properly implies a piece based on some special subject or feature involving a difficulty to be conquered by reiteration. Thus the draughtsman has his studies of heads, hands, arms, trees, &c., intended by the constant successive practice of one particular form to lead to facility of execution. Among the earliest and the best pianoforte studies of this kind are Clementi's "Gradus ad Parnassum," and Cramer's well-known studies, which may be considered to form the basis of all sound pianoforte playing. An exclusive practice, however, of such works, admirable as they are, is apt to lead to a dry and mechanical style, in which poetry and impulse are repressed. Chopin was the first who combined with the form of the pianoforte study the expression of romantic imagination and sentiment in a series of pieces that, while exercising to the utmost the manipulative powers of the player, demand also high mental qualifications for their true interpretation. These pieces are, however, of such extreme difficulty as to form the ultimatum of the pianist's art, and no preparation can be found so fit for them as the studies of Heller, which aim at the development of the player's powers of sentiment and rhythmical expression rather than that mere mechanical dexterity for which there already exists an overabundant supply of exercises. The several series are progressive in degree of difficulty, the first set being available for players of very moderate attainments, while the last series is calculated to lead directly to the studies of Chopin and Henselt. Even the smallest and simplest of these works of Heller's are impressed with an exquisite grace and elegance, and an individuality of character that raise them far beyond the generality of such pieces; while those of a more advanced order may fairly compare, as compositions, with the works of the classics of the pianoforte. The title of "study" is generally suggestive, more or less, of dryness and utility. The studies of Heller, while possessing much of the latter quality, have none of the former, as they have a charm and fascination eminently calculated to attract the student of taste, who will certainly continue to play them long after any temporary purpose of improvement has been answered. "Merry Songs for Little Voices" (published by Griffith and Farran), is a series of verses by Mrs. Broderip and Thomas Hood, illustrated by the latter, and set to music by Thomas Murby. The son and daughter of the late Thomas Hood have here combined in the production of a small volume, intended for the amusement of very little people, and well calculated for its purpose. The verses generally are well adapted to enlist the sympathies of juvenile minds—while some of the illustrations are fanciful and graceful, and others have a touch of that grotesque stiffness which distinguished the pencil of the elder Hood. The music is simple and tuneful, and in keeping with the general purpose of the book.

THE LONDON THEATRES.

MR. BUCKSTONE has a fancy, which he often indulges in, for turning his theatre into a museum of dramatic curiosities. The other day he revived "The Castle of Andalusia," and this week he has revived the "musical entertainment," or English comic opera, by Hoare and Storace, called "No Song, no Supper." Nothing can well be weaker than the plot of this piece, or more rude in construction, while the fun is very childish and boisterous; but it is good sometimes to see what amused our grandfathers and grandmothers, to make us tolerant of the modern drama.

"No Song, no Supper" was written by Mr. Prince Hoare, a painter, who wrote chiefly for his own amusement. He produced about twenty little pieces, but this is the only one, if we except "Three and the Deuce," which has retained its hold upon the stage. It was first played at Drury Lane, April 16th, 1790, and the cast included "Dickey" Suett, and the celebrated Bannister. The music by Signor Storace is admirable, full of melody and dramatic character. As English comic opera music, it is vastly superior to many compositions of the present day. A comic trio between Miss Keeley, Miss Nelly Moore, and Mrs. Villiers was acted and sung with great spirit, and the whole performance is very creditable to the operatic skill of the Haymarket company. Suett's part—Endless—is played by Mr. Compton, and Robin, a sailor—Bannister's part—is played by Mr. W. Farren.

Lilliput is to be well represented this Christmas amongst the exhibitions of London. We have already got Commodore Nutt and Miss Minnie Warren at St. James's Hall, and Tom Thumb and his wife are to follow with as little delay as possible. Barnum's orders have arrived, and the little General is rudely told to cut short his grand tour of Europe, his private and exclusive receptions, and interviews with "crowned heads," and to appear before common masses at the Crystal Palace, London. The baby is to be dragged into the show; but the sceptical are beginning to express doubts about the child's parentage.

Commodore Nutt, who has appeared this week in England for the first time, assisted by Miss Minnie Warren, Tom Thumb's sister-in-law, is a little compact gentleman described as being twenty-nine inches high, and twenty years of age. Miss Warren is said to be eighteen years of age, and only twenty-four inches

high. There is a remarkable family likeness between the whole four dwarfs, chiefly shown in sallow skins, prominent foreheads, and receding noses. Commodore Nutt has a great deal of natural and acquired talent as a comic actor, and he is intelligent and self-possessed in society. There is some talk of the whole four appearing together in a little comedy.

Some very severe and not altogether unmerited remarks have appeared in several journals about the management of the Dramatic College Ball, provoked by the transparent humbug of the voucher system. If the committee throw aside all pretence next year, and openly sell tickets to any applicant, no one can complain if the rooms are filled with second and third-rate strumpets. The ball, on the whole, was very well conducted this year, and the company, wild as it was, behaved with tolerable decency.

The Christmas pieces are now nearly ready. Mr. Byron, as usual, has been the most active amongst the burlesque writers. He provides the Haymarket with a fairy burlesque, the subject of which is drawn from the stores of the Countess d'Aulnoy; its title will be "Princess Springtime." The Strand will have a romantic burlesque from his pen, called "The Grin Bushes," in which Mr. Stoye, the new low comedian, will play Miami. The Adelphi will have a classical burlesque by him, called "Pan;" and for Her Majesty's Theatre he has written a pantomime, founded on the nursery legend of the "Lion of Windsor Fighting for the Crown." The burlesque opening of this piece will have the aid of Mr. G. Honey, and the harlequinade will include the latest novelty—a one-legged clown.

The pantomime at Covent Garden is by the "Brothers Grinn," and the subject is "Cinderella." In this, "Donato," the celebrated one-legged dancer, will appear; the Paynes, not to be outdone, intend to introduce a novel three-legged dance.

At Drury Lane, Mr. E. L. Blanchard has provided a pantomime on the subject of "Hop o' my Thumb," the opening of which will be supported by Master Percy Roselle, the best of "infant prodigies," Mr. Belmore, Miss Lydia Thompson, and others.

The New Royalty will rely upon Mr. Burnand's "Snowdrop," and the Olympic will have a classical burlesque, called "Cupid and Psyche," by the same author.

The St. James's will have a classical burlesque by Mr. W. Brough, on the subject of the "Labours of Hercules." The Princess's will have a short pantomimic extravaganza, called "The Magic Horse and the Ice Maiden Princess;" and the Lyceum will have no burlesque nor pantomime, but Mr. Fechter will play Robert Macaire, and will also appear in a little piece from the French, called "The Shade of the Unknown."

The outlying theatres are all provided with pantomimes. The subject at Sadler's Wells is "Sir Hugh Myddelton" and the "Bailiff's Daughter of Islington." Morning performances of "The Streets of London" will be given at the Princess's, and Mr. Sothorn will return to the Haymarket on Boxing-night with "David Garrick" and "Lord Dundreary."

A large music hall, called "The Cambridge," conducted on the old plan, has been opened this week in Commercial-street, Shore-ditch; and another large music hall at Pimlico—the last opened, called "The Regent"—has been brought to the hammer.

THE Council of the Royal Academy have named Messrs. Millais, Ward, and E. W. Cook as the managing committee for the coming exhibition. Messrs. Lee and Herbert should have served in rotation, but they are absent from England—Mr. Lee in his yacht, Mr. Herbert in the Holy Land.

EXETER HALL.—The Christmas performance of the "Messiah" will be given by the National Choral Society on Wednesday next. Miss Louisa Pyne, whose success in the "Elijah" on Wednesday last was so complete, has been engaged by the National Choral Society for next Wednesday's performance of the "Messiah," and for the "Creation," which will shortly follow.

SCIENCE.

THERE are few beyond the pale of the physical science world who fancy that in the formation of a drop of water laws as determinate as those of gravitation come into play, yet this appears to be the case. Professor Guthrie, of the Royal College, Mauritius, has communicated a lengthy memoir to the Royal Society upon the subject of drops, in which we find an extensive series of laws tabulated, from which we observe that the size of a drop of liquid is influenced by the following circumstances:—

- (1) The self-attraction and cohesion of the liquid generating the drop.
- (2) Its adhesion to the matter upon which the drop is formed.
- (3) The shape of the matter from which the drop moves.
- (4) The physical relation of the medium (atmosphere, &c.) through which the drop moves, on the one hand, to the liquid of which the drop is formed, and on the other to the matter (glass-rod, mouth of phial, &c.) on which it is formed.
- (5) The attraction of the earth, or gravitation upon the liquid forming the drop and the medium, as influenced by their respective relative densities, and by variation in the attracting power of the earth.

The grandest achievement at which photography can ever hope to arrive is the production of sun-pictures in which all the colours of the object portrayed are presented. Earnest endeavours are

being made by chemists in all parts of the world to accomplish this end, but hitherto with but little success. M. Niepce de St. Victor, who continues to pursue this subject, has recently made some observations of considerable importance, and has to some slight extent succeeded in grasping what so many scientific persons consider to be a mere phantom—the representation of an object in which several colours are exhibited. He makes use of baths of soluble chlorides to obtain a sensitive surface, and he has found that the chlorides which give coloured flames reproduce objects in the same colour as the flame. Chloride of strontium, for example, gives him a surface which reproduces the red colour of an object; and thus by using baths of variable composition, in which the chloride corresponding to the predominating colour, is in the largest proportion, M. Niepce obtains representations of natural colours. There is but one circumstance to be regretted, and that is, they are not permanent.

Heretofore, it has been thought that the only method of obtaining the metal aluminum was by acting on the chloride with the alkaline metals; but M. Basset, of Paris, has discovered that the metalloids and metals, which, by double decomposition, will form chlorides more fusible and volatile than the chlorides of aluminum, may be employed for reducing these latter. For instance, arsenic, boron, cyanogen, zinc, antimony, mercury, and even tin, may be used, and also the alloys or amalgams of zinc, antimony, and tin. The inventor prefers to use zinc, owing to its low price, the facility of its application, its volatility, and other useful properties. The zinc should always be added in excess in the proportions of about four of zinc to one of chloride of aluminum. When the latter is brought into the presence of zinc at a temperature of from 250° to 300° centigrade, a chloride of zinc is obtained, and pure aluminum is set free. This latter will dissolve in the excess of zinc, and the chloride of zinc, combining with the chloride of sodium, the mass becomes thick and pasty, while the alloy of zinc and aluminum remains liquid. If the temperature of the mass is again raised, it all becomes liquid, the zinc reduces another proportion of chloride, and the excess of zinc becomes enriched with an extra quantity of aluminum. The rich alloy is again melted with the addition of more chloride of aluminum, and kept well stirred or agitated, until nearly pure aluminum, with a very small per-centage of zinc, is obtained. This is finally heated to whiteness, and the zinc, becoming volatilized, pure aluminum remains behind.

The controversy which was commenced some time since in the French Academy is not yet over. M. Berthé now appears in the field with a paper upon the relative actions of codeine and morphia, and gives his verdict in favour of the former. In forty-five cases in which this physician employed codeine, he found that its sedative properties entitle it to rank among the best therapeutical means for producing rest without disturbing the general functions of the body. Compared with morphia, says M. Berthé "this alkaloid (codeine) shows a marked superiority. It never gives rise to restless or heavy slumber, nor to increased perspiration or skin eruptions. It does not affect the digestive functions unpleasantly, never giving rise to constipation, as is the case with morphia." For these reasons he considers codeine to be a most valuable medicine in all cases where there is inflammation of the mucous membrane of the stomach. In one case of gastralgia, which defied all other remedies, belladonna included, the pain yielded to codeine.

Taking for granted the truth of the old story concerning Mahomet's coffin, i.e., that it is suspended in mid-air by the equal attraction of several sets of magnets, acting in opposite directions, M. Plateau has been experimenting upon the subject. He submitted the question to a careful calculation, and, despite its many difficulties, he has found that it would be quite impossible to attain stable equilibrium, no matter what magnetic appliances were employed.

A very interesting fossil has lately been added to the British Museum collection. It is the skull of *Bos frontosus*, nearly entire, and having the characteristic downward curve of the horn-cores. The specimen was discovered in the gravel valley near Vauxhall, south of London. The frontal, maxillary, and palatine bones are nearly perfect, and there are six molar teeth in position. This is the second instance in which this species has been met with in England. The other specimen was from the Bawdsey bog near Felixstow, Suffolk, and was figured in the *Geologist* for 1862.

In one of the late numbers of the *Comptes Rendus* there is a paper by M. Marguerite on the cementation of iron, in which he argues to prove that in the cementation of iron on a large scale, cyanides are not the important agents, iron being capable of being converted into steel by pure carbon, such as the diamond and plumbago, or even by carbonic oxide.

THE ETHNOLOGICAL SOCIETY.

AT Tuesday evening's meeting of this Society a very interesting collection of human remains, stone implements, and other articles was exhibited, which have recently been obtained by Mr. S. Laing, in some extensive excavations which he has been carrying on in Caithness, and which are believed to date from a very remote period in the history of man. Mr. Laing gave an account of his operations, and described the various articles which had been found, and a lively discussion followed. Mr. Laing said that he had long been of opinion that important evidence in respect to the antiquity of man might be discovered in this country by searches something resembling those which had been carried on in Denmark, by open-

ing what were called the "Kitchen-middens" there, and last summer he had caused several large mounds to be opened near Kiess, in Caithness, about eight miles north of Wick. On removing the green turf at the top these mounds were discovered to consist chiefly of large masses of periwinkle and limpet shells, mixed with bones, flint splinters, and bone instruments of the rudest kind. In two there were remains of ancient buildings, and in one they came upon a building with solid massive walls, and three separate pavements one over the other, showing evidence of successive occupation, either by successive races, or by the same races at successive periods of time. In the lowest strata stone implements of the rudest kind had been discovered, but in the instruments found in the upper strata a greater finish of workmanship was distinctly traceable. In one case a pair of shears with the blades of bronze and handles of iron, and bone implements of various descriptions had been found, mixed up with a mass of shells and bones of animals which had been used for food. Among these bones, too, had been discovered part of the jaw of a child, with the teeth attached to it, broken across as if to get at the marrow, affording ground for a presumption that cannibalism was prevalent, or at least, occasionally resorted to among the race to which the remains refer. The specimens of pottery varied according to the strata in which they were found. In the lower strata they were rude, and of a very poor character; in the upper they showed an improved manufacture, and had occasionally a blue glaze. None of the stone implements showed the mark of a tool; nor did the stones of which the buildings were formed; but the sandstone of the district, which was chiefly used—there being no flint in the neighbourhood—split naturally so regularly that there was little necessity for this. Among the animal remains which had been identified were the bones of a small whale, which had been probably driven ashore and eaten, dolphins and cod, the ox, horse, red deer in large quantities and of gigantic size, wild boar, and goat. No sheep bones had been discovered, which was an indication of great antiquity, as no signs of the sheep had ever been discovered in the Swiss lake dwellings. Remains of the dog and fox, both as articles of food, of the cormorant, the solan goose, and the great awk (*alca imprennis*), had been found, but nine-tenths of the food of these people was shellfish. They had no fishing-tackle, nor was there anything to intimate that they had any notion of fishing or boating, though they lived on the seashore. Their notions of art were of the rudest and most primitive description, but their architecture was more respectable, and a spinning-wheel which had been dug out seemed to show that they had some notion of manufactures. Mr. Laing also described the result of opening a long burial mound by the seashore, which he found full of stone coffins at regular intervals of about 15 ft. apart. The mode of sepulture was an additional proof of the extreme antiquity of the people. The corpse was extended at full length on the ground, the stone cist was built up round it, with flat blocks of flagstone, and the whole was covered with a light mound of stone and earth. There were no traces of habitation about this mound; it had been used solely as a place of sepulture. About the centre of it was found the coffin of one who appeared by the care bestowed on his burial to be the chief of the tribe, and close by his hand were discovered fifteen stone weapons of rude manufacture—a hatchet, sundry spearheads, and knives or scrapers. Mr. Laing concluded that these remains belonged to the early stone period, and that the race to whom they belonged were part of the primitive population of these islands, who in that remote corner of the country had long preserved the simplicity and rudeness of their modes of life. Professor Huxley then pointed out with elaborate minuteness the peculiarities of the human bones, from which he concluded that they were the remains of two separate and distinct races. The first was typified by a skull which, as the members would see for themselves, was large, capacious, and well arched. In fact, there were few of the able men present, the Professor said, who had a better developed cranium, and it closely resembled that type which was described in the *Crania Britannica* of Davis and Thurnham as the "ancient British" skull. The pelvis belonging to this skull was such as might be possessed by any well-grown muscular Englishman of the present day. The skulls belonging to the second race were of a much lower order—narrow, long-formed, sloping upwards towards the vertex, and then downwards again, with a great occipital protuberance, and a remarkably protruding upper lip. The pelvis, too, of this race was most peculiar, its proportions being diametrically opposite to those of the present European type, and the extraordinary development of the muscular ridges showed a rude and wild character. These skulls were comparable to what the Professor in a former paper had called "the river-bed type," and came closer than any others to the skull of the Australian native. One skull which the Professor pointed to was a woman's, and was as degraded and villanous in its form as any he had seen. The tibia and the forearm, too, of this woman were out of the ordinary proportion, which was a further sign of degradation. The Professor, in conclusion, said the remains afforded no ground for the theory that a "round-headed" had preceded the "long-headed" race in the occupation of these islands.

A long and animated discussion followed, in which a very general opinion was expressed that the remains were not of so remote an antiquity as Mr. Laing believed. Dr. Thurnham expressed his concurrence in Professor Huxley's conclusions, but denied that the mode of burial described by Mr. Laing was a proof of the extreme antiquity of this race. Burial in the crouching position was by far the oldest, and the extended position was of comparatively recent intro-

duction. On the whole, he should not date the remains later than some centuries after the Christian era. Professor Busk stated that sheep bones had been found in some excavations in the same neighbourhood, which was a proof that they were not of very great age. Mr. Evans was also of opinion that there was no reason for assigning any extreme antiquity to the remains, and with one or two exceptions, he believed that none of the stone implements had been fashioned for any particular purpose. Mr. Christie said the implements were certainly of as rude a description as any he had ever seen; and, on the whole, he thought the remains presented the aspect of a people which had been forced by adverse circumstances to accept a civilization much lower than that which was its normal character. Mr. Crauford said he had little faith in the power of craniology to determine who these people were. He believed that they were the primordial Scotchmen, the aboriginal inhabitants of the island, the direct ancestors of the Bruces, the Wallaces, and the Burns. He saw no foundation whatever for believing that these were the remains of two races. As for the suspicion of cannibalism, he did not believe in it. Gibbon, on the authority of an obscure lying Roman historian, had endeavoured to fix the imputation of cannibalism on the ancient Scots, but no people ever resorted to cannibalism which had plenty of animal food, which this people had. The introduction of the hog had done almost as much to root out cannibalism in New Zealand as Christianity. Mr. Wright reminded Mr. Crauford that St. Jerome was an authority for the existence of cannibalism among the ancient Scotch tribes. He had seen prisoners of them in Gaul, who, he said, were much fonder of the owners of the cattle than the cattle themselves; and Professor Huxley, in reference to this point, said his inquiries had led him to the belief that cannibalism was one of the most extensive practices of humanity, and that the first thing which naturally occurred to a man was not to love his neighbour, but to eat him. The Fejees, who were great cannibals, had plenty of animal food, and in Sumatra they did not wait to cook a man, but cut him up and ate him cold with lemon, like an oyster.

A cordial vote of thanks to Mr. Laing and Professor Huxley closed the evening.

ROYAL GEOGRAPHICAL SOCIETY.

THE third meeting of the present session of this society was held on Monday evening last, at Burlington House; Sir Roderick I. Murchison, President, in the chair.

After the election and presentation of new members, Mr. J. C. Fletcher presented, on the part of the Government of Brazil, a copy of a magnificent work, published under the auspices of the Emperor, on the Rio San Francisco, one of the great rivers of the empire. The work contains a very detailed description and chart (on the scale of one inch to a mile) of the course of the river for more than a thousand miles. Mr. Fletcher explained that the Emperor took an active and intelligent part in this and similar works tending to the advancement of geographical knowledge, and congratulated the society on having elected so accomplished a monarch one of its honorary members.

The first paper read was a "Description of the Islands of Kalatoa and Puloweh, north of Flores, in the Malay Archipelago," by Mr. J. Cameron, of Singapore. These little-known islands were visited by the author in the course of a trading expedition, and the chief result of his visit was the conviction that they contained no fresh water. Their verdant appearance was a deceitful lure, against which future travellers in that part ought to be on their guard. Kalatoa was uninhabited, but Puloweh, notwithstanding the absence of so great a necessity of life as fresh water, maintained a population of 5,000 souls—a meagre, dingy-skinned race of savages, not, however, without their redeeming points, for their countenances wear always a comically good-natured expression. Their ordinary beverage is a fermented liquor made from palm fruits, which has the property of being a harmless drink in the morning, slightly stimulating at midday, and strongly intoxicating in the evening. The author affirmed that the daily life of the whole population was a repetition of the various stages of intoxication, corresponding to the process of fermentation of their compulsory beverage, and that every evening ended in a drunken brawl.

The fact of the absence of fresh water in these islands was disputed by Mr. Crauford and Mr. Wallace, the latter of whom had visited many similar islets in the Malay Archipelago, on which, although no fresh water was apparent on the surface, a plentiful supply could always be obtained by digging until the level of the sea was reached, the porous coral rock of which they were formed seeming to act as a filter.

The next paper was "On an Expedition to the West Coast of Otago, New Zealand, and the Discovery of a practicable Route over the Mountains to the Goldfields and the East Coast," by Dr. Hector. The author, who is the official geological surveyor of the Otago province, in the course of his exploration of the deep sounds and harbours of the West Coast, in 1863, discovered a broad river entering St. Martin's Bay. Its mouth is concealed by a long sand-pit and a deceptive appearance of breakers, so that it is invisible two miles out at sea; but the river within is a quarter of a mile in width. There are ten feet of water on the shallowest part of the bar. Four miles inland the stream flows out of a lake one or two miles in width, and ten or twelve miles in length, having a considerable breadth of rich alluvial land on its shores. Having satisfied himself by a careful survey that this river (named Kaduku by the Maories) might form a harbour and a good position for a

settlement on this difficult coast, Dr. Hector left his vessel at the head of the lake, and started on a land journey with a view to ascertain whether any pass existed from this point over the New Zealand Alps to the settlements on the eastern side of the island. He had previously tried the head of Milford Sound for this purpose, but was stopped by an almost impassable ridge, which effectually severed this fine harbour from the rest of the province. The valley at the head of the Kaduku was found quite practicable. It extends for about forty miles, with a general direction N. and S., and in some parts is two miles in width, and finely but not densely timbered. The party emerged on the Wakatipu Lake, the distance from the Kaduku, along the line surveyed for a road, being about fifty miles. Dr. Hector, on arriving at Queenstown, on the shores of the Wakatipu, sent men to clear the track he had explored, and proceeded himself to Dunedin to report his discovery to the superintendent.

A third paper, by Mr. Albert Walker, consisted of a short narrative of a hazardous journey which the author performed in company with two other young men along the west coast of the Middle Island, New Zealand. Starting from Christchurch, they crossed the "Saddle," and descended the Teramakau to its mouth, thence following the sea-shore as far as the Wanganui river. The same journey, as was explained afterwards to the meeting by Mr. Harper and Captain Evans, had been performed some years before by Mr. Leonard Harper, Mr. Brunner, and another traveller. Mr. Walker's object was to explore the country for sheep-runs, and he reported having traversed a considerable extent of fertile soil, heavily timbered, near the Okilika River.

SCIENTIFIC MEETING.—Monday:—Medical Society of London. "On the Present State of Medical Logic." By Mr. Hunt.

MONEY AND COMMERCE.

THE SCOTTISH WIDOW'S FUND.

To such of our readers as are not acquainted with the name of the above society, it may be necessary to premise that it is simply a mutual life assurance society, and that a member's widow has no claim upon any benefit derivable from its funds which she would not have if her deceased husband had assured his life in any other society or company. The "Scottish Widow's Fund" is merely the name of a mutual life assurance society.

This society was established some fifty years since, has evidently been conducted with skill and enterprise, and is rich and flourishing.

Before inviting our readers' attention to the particular point to which we wish more particularly to be allowed to direct it, we will observe in commendation of this society that it furnishes, with praiseworthy and exemplary completeness, to its members and the public all the information which is necessary to enable them to judge of its success, and of the soundness of the methods on which it conducts its valuations, and distributes its bonus. And on this point we will observe that such faithful and precise disclosure of all material facts is itself an indication not only of honesty but of success. Where public insurance companies put forward statements from which their condition cannot be ascertained, and where they conceal the method of their valuations, or the facts to which their method is applied, it is not an unfair inference that they fear the results of the investigation which they render impossible.

To return to our society;—it appears that some of the existing members have made such use of the information furnished them as to have come to the conclusion that the funds of the society might, with prudence and safety, afford them a much larger bonus than that founded on the existing rules which govern the mode of ascertaining the surplus, and, when ascertained, of dividing it amongst the members.

It appears that the society's tables were calculated by the Northampton table of mortality, and further investigation into the statistics of the duration of life have shown that this table is very inaccurate. Fortunately for the offices which adopted it its errors are, in the main, largely in favour of the offices, and have ministered to their wealth rather than to their ruin, for the Northampton table provides for a rate of mortality much larger than what actually exists in these islands.

By the rules of the society the valuations of its liabilities, made septennially, proceed on the same erroneous data. It is, however, upon these valuations that the surplus has hitherto been determined. If the Northampton table of mortality were the only element in such calculations, the effect of all this would be that too high premiums would be charged, and the reserves made to meet the liabilities of the society being too large also, the surplus would be too small.

But the assumed rate of mortality is not the only element which determines premiums and reserves. The rate of interest at which the premiums are improved, and at which the liabilities are discounted, exercises also a great effect, and it so happened in the case of the Scottish Widows' Fund that the rate of interest calculated on very nearly compensated for the erroneous table of mortality, so that the surplus formed by the methods prescribed by the rules of the society were not very different from those which would have been found to result from more correct data.

Under these circumstances it appears that the directors have

very wisely tested the calculations made in accordance with their rules by others founded on a more correct table of mortality and another rate of interest, and they have also laid the results by both methods before their members and the public.

It seems pretty evident, from the disputes which have arisen between some of the members and the directors, that a much larger surplus exists than has yet been divided, and the directors are urged to amend the rules so as to allow of the division of this larger surplus amongst the members. They have, in fact, already consented to substitute the more correct data now obtainable for the old Northampton table, and to make some alteration with respect to the surplus so found. By the old rules of the society, two-thirds only of the surplus was allotted to the member's policies by way of bonus, and the other third was reserved as a sort of guarantee, not much needed, that their policies should be paid as they become claims. If, as was always the case, this one-third turned out not to be wanted, it merged at a subsequent valuation into the general fund; a new valuation was then made, a new surplus was found, and two-thirds of this was allotted as bonus amongst the members. Instead of receiving this third, the directors now propose to retain only 5 per cent. of the value of the liabilities. This 5 per cent., although a large sum, being something less than one-third of the whole surplus, some of the members are not, we understand, content with, but say, in effect, "If your calculations are reliable, and you are ready to let in new members on premiums fixed by those calculations, apply them also to us, and let us have at once our surplus, if it be one. If not, amend your calculations, and charge new members a higher rate of premium commensurate with the danger which leads you to withhold from us our surplus."

In this we think the members have reason and justice on their side, and we should hope that the directors will yield with good grace, as we believe they will have to yield in the end; though, perhaps, not until after a prolonged dispute between them and a section of their constituents—a dispute, the merits of which will hardly be appreciated by the public—will have disturbed the harmony and perhaps have retarded the progress of the society.

The directors have also laid themselves open to a farther and larger demand from the same or some other section of their co-members. They have put forth a table of somewhat low premiums for the insurance of the lives of persons who will not be members of the society, nor have any claim to participate in its profits. "If you are content to do this," say some of the members, "and if it is both safe and profitable to do it, you should be content, and it would be safe and profitable to us, to treat us as well, and to calculate what you ought to keep in hand to provide for the liability the society is under to us by the same methods as those you use in arriving at the low premiums charged to non-members."

The application of this principle would, we are informed, lead to the division of a large sum amongst existing members; but they would get very little further bonus.

It cannot be supposed that the directors who believe in the safety of low premiums would resist the wishes of the members, or decline to do anything so evidently to their advantage unless there were some strong reason against it. The directors having determined, as it is understood, to resist the proposed change, we are bound to suppose some strong reason, or some which will appear so to them. And we suspect that we shall not be far wrong if we guess that the reason is that it would aim a blow at the permanence of the society. For the public, if the present wealth of the institution is dissipated by the allotment of the far greater part of it amongst its present members, will not come forward in large numbers to become members, and so the society will either die out or sink to the condition of a small institution. They may also consider that it has always been an understanding amongst the members that the society should be a large bonus office, and that the proposed change would destroy this character—to the benefit, perhaps, of existing members, but against the mutual understanding which has always existed amongst them.

We shall not pretend to decide the points in dispute, but we are strongly inclined to the opinion that if the present funds of the Society belong to the existing members, and that if these can hit upon any way of dealing with them more to their advantage than saving them up for future additions to their policies, they will be right in doing so, provided their deed of settlement or articles of association allow of their altering their rules so as to give effect to their wishes. The main object of life assurance is to provide for a family, and if a family can be better provided for by some new plan of valuation which is sound and legitimate, and does not therefore defeat the object of life assurance, we think that the plan should be adopted, although some persons—names unknown—who would otherwise have become members of the society do not become members. We think, in fact, that the greatest benefit to the existing members of a society and the proprietors of all its funds, should guide the directors, and not the permanence of the society—which, moreover, if the new plan is sound and equitable, may not be endangered. As to any "mutual understanding," the only place to look for that is in the deed of settlement or articles of association.

THE quotation of gold at Paris is about 3 per mille premium, and the short exchange on London is 25.20 per £1 sterling. On comparing these rates with the English Mint price of £3. 17s. 10½d. per ounce for standard gold, it appears that gold is about 2-10ths per cent. dearer in Paris than in London.

By advices from Hamburg the price of gold is 425 per mark, and the short exchange on London is 13'4 $\frac{1}{2}$ per £1 sterling. Standard gold at the English Mint price is, therefore, at about 1-10th per cent. cheaper in London than in Hamburg.

The Directors of the Bank of England, at their weekly court on Thursday, reduced the minimum rate of discount from 7 to 6 per cent.

There has been a good amount of business transacted in Colonial Government securities. Canada 6 per Cents. (Jan. and July, 1877-84) fetched 99 $\frac{1}{2}$; 5 per Cents., 88 $\frac{3}{4}$ 8; Mauritius 6 per Cents. (January and July, 1873), 107; do. (1878), 108 $\frac{1}{2}$; New South Wales 5 per Cents. (1888-92), 95; New Zealand 5 per Cents., 90 $\frac{1}{2}$; and Victoria 6 per Cents. (April and Oct.), 107 6 $\frac{1}{2}$.

United States 6 per Cents., 5-20 years (1882), were dealt in at 42 $\frac{1}{2}$; and Virginia 6 per Cents., 29 $\frac{1}{2}$ 8 $\frac{1}{2}$.

The India Five per Cent. stock met with numerous transactions between 102 $\frac{3}{4}$ and 103 $\frac{1}{4}$. The Five per Cent. "enfaced" rupee paper was a little more offered. India Bonds were dealt in at par. Exchequer Bills remain at 6s. to 1s. dis.

The half-monthly settlement in foreign securities was not attended by any material fluctuations. The only change of importance has been a further improvement of 1 per cent. in the Confederate Loan, which is now at 61 to 63. Greek Bonds and Spanish Passive are each $\frac{1}{2}$ lower, the former at 22 $\frac{1}{2}$ to 23, the latter at 31 $\frac{1}{2}$ to $\frac{3}{4}$. Spanish Certificates are $\frac{1}{2}$ better, at 14 to $\frac{1}{4}$, and also Consolidés, at 47 to $\frac{1}{4}$. Mexican is at 29 $\frac{1}{2}$ to $\frac{3}{4}$ —an advance of $\frac{1}{2}$.

Transactions are recorded as follows:—Danish, 1864, 96 $\frac{1}{2}$, 97; ditto Debenture scrip, 1873-77, $\frac{7}{8}$ prem.; Dutch Two-and-a-Half per cents., 62 $\frac{3}{4}$; Egyptian, 95 $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{3}{4}$; ditto, 1864, 94 $\frac{3}{4}$; ditto scrip, $\frac{3}{4}$ prem.; Greek, for account, 22 $\frac{1}{2}$; Italian, for account, 64 $\frac{3}{4}$, $\frac{7}{8}$; ditto Maremmana Railway, 71 $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{2}$; Mexican, for account, 29 $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{4}$; ditto, 1864, 27 $\frac{1}{2}$; Portuguese, 1856, &c., for account, 47 $\frac{7}{8}$; Russian, 1862, 87, $\frac{1}{4}$, 86 $\frac{3}{4}$; ditto, 1864, 88 $\frac{1}{2}$, Spanish Passive, for account, 31 $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{3}{4}$; ditto Certificates, for account, 14, $\frac{1}{4}$; Turkish, 1854, for account, 88, $\frac{1}{2}$; ditto, 1858, for account, 70, $\frac{1}{2}$; ditto, £100 Bonds, 74; ditto, 1862, 71 $\frac{3}{4}$, 71; ditto, for account, 71 $\frac{3}{4}$, $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{3}{4}$; ditto £100 Bonds, 71 $\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{1}{2}$; ditto Guaranteed, 100, $\frac{1}{4}$; Venezuela, 1862, for account, 51 $\frac{1}{2}$; ditto, 1864, 43. Egyptian Loan scrip was last quoted $\frac{3}{4}$ to 1 prem.; Danubian Principalities Loan, $\frac{1}{4}$ dis. to par; Montevidean Loan, $\frac{3}{4}$ to 1 prem.; and Atlantic and Great Western Railway Certificates of Debenture, $\frac{1}{2}$ to $\frac{3}{4}$ prem. The allotment letters in this latter case were sent out on the 13th inst.

Hudson's Bay shares were last quoted 16 $\frac{3}{4}$ to $\frac{3}{4}$, being rather flatter; Egyptian Trading, $\frac{7}{8}$ to 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ prem.; National Discount, 10 $\frac{1}{2}$ to $\frac{3}{4}$ prem.; and Joint Stock Discount, $\frac{3}{4}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$ dis. A rather decided fall took place in the shares of the Canada Company. Commercial Union Insurance, Italian Irrigation, North British and Mercantile Insurance, Ocean Marine, and Universal Marine Insurance were all flatter. International Land Credit have improved to $\frac{3}{4}$ to $\frac{7}{8}$ prem. There were also inquiries for Contract Corporation, City Offices, Upper Assam Tea, and Peninsular and Oriental Steam shares. Ottoman Société Générale shares were last quoted 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ to 2 $\frac{3}{4}$ prem.

The following are the latest recorded prices of business transacted in insurance companies' shares:—Alliance British and Foreign, 15 $\frac{1}{2}$; Atlas, 12 $\frac{1}{2}$; Commercial Union, 8 $\frac{3}{4}$; Guardian, 49 $\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{2}$; Imperial Fire, 348 9; Imperial Life, 20 $\frac{3}{4}$; Liverpool and London and Globe (6 per Cent. Annuity), 121 ex. div.; London, 46; London and Lancashire Fire, 3; London and Provincial Law, 3 $\frac{1}{2}$; Union, 280; Alliance British and Foreign Marine, 43; British and Foreign Marine, 4 $\frac{3}{4}$; London and Caledonian Marine, 5; London and Provincial Marine, 3; Ocean Marine, 26 $\frac{1}{2}$ 5 $\frac{3}{4}$; Thames and Mersey Marine, 7 $\frac{3}{4}$ $\frac{1}{2}$; and Universal Marine, 5 $\frac{1}{2}$.

The particulars are published of 171 bonds, representing £24,080 of the Sardinian Five per Cent. Loan of 1851, which were cancelled on Tuesday, under the operation of the sinking fund.

The following letter has been received at the Bank, intimating that Monday, the 26th inst., will be observed as a holiday at all the public establishments, and referring to the arrangements essential for the payment of bills of exchange accepted by the Paymaster-General:—"Treasury Chambers, Dec. 12, 1864. Gentlemen,—I am directed by the Lords Commissioners of her Majesty's Treasury to acquaint you that as the public departments will be closed on Monday, the 26th inst., except for the transaction of indispensable business, by reason of Christmas-day falling on Sunday, my lords have been pleased to cause a notice to be issued that all bills of exchange accepted by the Paymaster-General, and payable on his account at the Bank of England, which fall due on the 26th inst., will be paid if presented on Saturday, the 24th inst., but that bills due on the 26th, and not paid on the 24th, will be paid as usual, if required. I am, therefore, to request that you will give publicity to the notice above alluded to. I am, gentlemen, your obedient servant, (Signed) George A. Hamilton. The Governors and Deputy Governors of the Bank of England."

A requisition is in course of signature at the Stock Exchange, soliciting the committee to close the establishment on Saturday, the 24th, and Monday, the 26th inst. It is already numerously signed, and there seems to be a confident impression that the authorities will readily accede to the proposition.

Proposals have been issued by Messrs. Mañá, Macgregor, & Co. for a Montevidean Loan of £1,000,000 in 6 per cent. bonds of £100 each, at the price of 60, in instalments extending to the 31st of March next. The advance to the Montevidean Government was made more than a year ago upon internal stock, with the privilege of converting it into a European stock prior to the 31st of December, 1864, and as special security for the interest and sinking fund for redemption in thirty years, there is an hypothecation of

certain Customs and anchorage dues which are paid weekly at Montevideo, and which are to be remitted monthly to this side.

The following relates to the last Venezuela Loan:—"Venezuela Six per Cent. Loan, 1864.—The General Credit and Finance Company of London (limited) are in receipt of advices from their agents, Messrs. H. L. Boulton & Co., dated La Guayra, November 25, 1864, of duties collected as follows:—On account of the above loan per statement No. 10 from La Guayra, \$11,785 90c.; Nos. 17 and 18 from Puerto Cabello, \$7,326 85c.; total, \$19,112 75c. They add,—'Since we last had this pleasure, we have received no news from Ciudad Bolívar, but entertain no doubts about all being in order in that quarter.'"

THE last weekly account published by the Governor of the Bank of France fully justifies the Council in reducing the discount on commercial bills from 6 to 5 per cent. The cash in the bank amounts at present to more than 355,000,000f., having increased during the previous week by nearly 28,000,000f. The bank notes in circulation are reduced to 722,000,000f., having diminished by at least 20,000,000f. within eight days. The balance to the credit of private accounts has increased by nearly an equal sum, and the balance to the credit of the Treasury by nearly 9,000,000f.

ADVICES from Paris state that the recent large increase of specie in the Bank of France was in some measure caused by the large amounts sent in by the Messrs. Rothschild. Since the last return, however, it is stated that withdrawals, which are likely to continue, have taken place for Spain. Money is for the moment very abundant, but the Renten and other securities show very little animation, no change having been made by the Bank in their rates for discount, and the directors do not appear very ready to aid speculation either in old or new schemes.

AN Imperial decree orders that from the 1st of January next the transfer dues imposed by the law of 1857 on foreign companies shall be levied upon half the capital represented by shares, and upon the whole amount of obligations.

M. HAUSSMANN has published in the *Moniteur* an elaborate statement of the finances of Paris; it occupies not less than eighteen columns in the official print. In the municipal budget for the current year the total revenue of the city was estimated at 151,408,942f., but judging from the returns of the first ten months, it will in all probability amount to about 160,974,604f. The expenditure of the year was estimated in the budget at 151,408,492f., and will be in reality 150,472,619f., leaving a surplus of more than 10,500,000f. The Prefect next gives a detailed account of the operations of the Caisse des Travaux de Paris from its creation in 1858 to the present time, from which the total expenditure, it appears, has been 900,666,697f., towards meeting which a sum of 172,516,334f. has been derived from the operations themselves, the Caisse having furnished the remaining 728,150,364f. The Prefect next gave details of the budget for 1865. The receipts and expenditure, ordinary and extraordinary, are estimated at 140,750,863f. and supplementary at five millions, and the special at 9,839,177f., making a total of 155,590,040f. The budget is thus presented in *equilibrio*. For 1865, the interest on the municipal debt will be 13,428,746f., or 154,586f. less than in 1864; the administrative service of the Prefecture of the Seine is estimated at 58,835,537f., nearly three millions more than in 1864; the Prefecture of police stands for 12,381,840f., or 54,000f. less than the present year.

ADVICES from Frankfurt state that the Bourse in that city, which was firm while the rate for money was on the increase everywhere, has become dull ever since the discount has been reduced by the Banks of England and France. The reasons assigned for this apparent anomaly are—first, the extent to which the absorption of capital in United States' stocks has been carried: and next, the unfavourable accounts about the Austrian Credit Bank, which have spread a gloom over the market and discouraged dealings in Austrian stock.

THE Bank of Madrid, it is believed, propose to wind up. The prospects of business are not encouraging, and the capital paid up—only a limited amount—has been exhausted.

THE Italian Senate has voted the bill for the inscription on the books of the public debt of a sum of 1,067,000f. Rente in favour of the city of Turin. The bill authorising industrial and commercial companies to establish their chief offices elsewhere than at Turin was also passed, as also a bill for the transfer of the Court of Cassation from Milan to Turin.

THE advices from Mexico, *via* New Orleans, state that Mons. Bonnefous, Inspector-General of Finances at Paris, was to leave France, on the 15th inst., for Mexico, as one of the staff of French officials appointed to organize the Mexican finances. Intelligence from Rio Grande state that the commerce between Texas and Mexico extends largely.

THE following statistics, just to hand, will show the progress which has taken place in the production of wool in Buenos Ayres within the last 32 years:—In 1832 the exportation was only 944 bales; in 1840 it had increased to 3,577, or 280 per cent.; but in the ten succeeding years a most wonderful progress took place, for in 1850 the exportation figured for 17,069 bales, being a further increase of 380 per cent. The exports for subsequent years were as follows:—1854-55, 27,677 bales; 1855-56, 33,273 bales; 1856-7, 37,835 bales; 1857-58, 34,255 bales; 1858-59, 49,970 bales; 1859-60, 38,482 bales; 1860-61, 60,892 bales; 1861-62, 65,216 bales; 1862-63, 78,697 bales; and 1863-64, 91,381 bales.

A NEWSPAPER from Parana states that within a few leagues of that city there were planted in 1863 about thirty acres of cotton, and that in 1864 there were planted more than three hundred acres. The product of 1864 is estimated at 3,200 pounds. From this it appears that this year's product must only be an introduction to the future wealth in cotton, for the same district planted in 1864 over 3,200 pounds of seed. It is planted in hills two yards apart, with two or three seeds in a hill. Most of the plantations are on the banks of the Parana River, where embarkation would be a very trifling expense.

REVIEWS OF BOOKS.

THE CONVERSION OF THE ROMAN EMPIRE.*

MANY will remember the interest which the delivery of Mr. Merivale's lectures on the conversion of the Roman Empire, in the Royal Chapel of Whitehall, excited in the early part of the present year, and the distinguished audience to which they were addressed. Few of those who heard the lectures will fail to recall how deeply they were impressed, as well by the able and philosophical discussion of the subject and the comprehensive views enunciated in them, as by the preacher's clearness of exposition and elegance of diction and style. Furthermore, there are fewer still who did not feel that they had received much valuable instruction, and had had their views considerably enlarged as to the nature of the long and arduous struggle between Christianity and Paganism, which ended in the conversion of the Empire to Christ. These lectures are now reproduced in print in the volume before us; and we doubt not that the careful study of them will excite feelings in the mind of earnest Christian readers not unlike those which attended their oral delivery, and will impart new ideas on the great problems which seem now more than ever to be agitating the human soul. To have confidence, on such subjects, in such a guide as Mr. Merivale, it is sufficient to remember that he is the author of "The History of the Roman Empire," and to feel that the words we listen to are those of a true friend of religion and sincere believer in the truth of that Christianity whose conquest over man's ignorance he so ably narrates.

In sermons delivered in a Church of England pulpit, it does, at first sight, seem strange to find discussions on the philosophic systems of ancient Greece and Rome, and to hear the opinions of such celebrities as Cæsar, Cicero, and Cato, adduced on some of the greatest problems of religious interest. For this peculiarity Mr. Merivale thinks it necessary to make some apology. He claims for these addresses the title of *lectures* rather than of *sermons*, in virtue of their being delivered by him as the "Boyle Lecturer" for the year; and he expresses a desire to be pardoned if, in the critical investigation on which he is entering, "the exposition of the sacred text, or the topics of exhortation or religious instruction which form the usual staple of discourses from the pulpit, give place, in his hands, to an examination of human opinions." Of these opinions he says:—"Such subjects, too, I believe 'are good and profitable unto men.'"

The period selected by the learned lecturer to illustrate the steps by which the conversion of the Empire was effected, is the four hundred years which intervened between the Catiline conspiracy (63 B. C.) and the deliberations of the Council of Nice under Constantine the Great (A.D. 325), by which the form of the Christian creed was first definitively settled in opposition to the heresy of Arius. This is the space to be bridged over. The extreme dates represent, on the one hand, the infidelity of the educated classes of Greece and Rome, which had succeeded the collapse of the popular mythical religion; and, on the other, Christianity triumphant, in being, for the first time, installed in the position of a national religion. A common impression is, that a belief in the immortality of the soul and a state of future retribution was a part of the national religions of Ancient Rome and the several civilized States of Greece in the next century before Christ. This Mr. Merivale believes not to have been the case; and he adduces in proof a single well-known instance. The belief of an educated Roman as to the future existence and immortality of his soul is clearly manifested in a debate which took place in the Roman Senate, at the commencement of the period above referred to, as to the punishment of the Catiline conspirators. It was agreed that they should be punished; but the question was as to the form in which punishment should be inflicted. On the proposal being made that it should be by death, Cæsar, the chief Pontiff, and the highest functionary of the State religion, objected on the grounds of its insufficiency as a penalty, because, "after death there is no more punishment for sin, neither is there any reward for virtue." Cæsar proposed that they should be kept alive, and be punished alive in chains and in prison with a severity proportionate to the crime of which they had been guilty. Death, he believed, would be either no punishment at all, or only a very momentary one. On this expression of opinion as to a future state by Cæsar, Mr. Merivale observes that it is remarkable that it was received by the Senate without any feelings of disapprobation; that, on the contrary, it seemed rather to harmonize with the views of that august assembly. It was not considered out of place, or improper, that the high-priest of the national religion should make such an avowal. Cato, indeed, referred to Cæsar's words, but only in such "polished banter" as still more clearly showed what the general feeling on the question was; and Cicero, to whom the classical world is indebted for the celebrated treatise on the "Immortality of the Soul," spoke of it as an open question. The educated Roman did, according to Mr. Merivale's views, believe in the existence of the Gods and a Providence, but not in a future state. Hence, at the commencement of these four hundred years, within which was achieved the greatest victory ever witnessed by man, the world was in the depth of the darkness of infidelity, without assurance of any reward for virtue, and, sunk in the lowest pit of vice and immorality, without hope of mercy, or fear of punishment for sin.

The discussion of this part of his subject by Mr. Merivale is exceedingly interesting. The only thing to be regretted is, that the occasion did not allow him to enter more deeply into it; or, rather, that he did not supplement what he has said in the lectures more fully in the copious notes which fill the latter portion of his volume. We should like to hear how he reconciles this religious apathy of the educated Romans with the expressed opinion, sealed by death, of Socrates, on the reality of a future state, and the arguments on the same subject of his disciple Plato. It might be said that these men lived in a remoter age, and that sceptical doubts as to the soundness of their views had crept in and spread afterwards; but then there is the treatise by Cicero. The future existence in which the Stoics believed was nothing more than a kind of Pantheism; but did Cicero really not believe in the immortality of the soul? The late Archbishop of Dublin, Dr. Whately, was in the habit of maintaining that the arguments given by Cicero in his *Tusculan Disputations* were only a kind of intellectual gymnastics, in which the Academic philosophers indulged as an amusement, but which carried no positive conviction with them; and the opinion is probably correct. The Archbishop very reasonably argued that, if Cicero had had any real belief on the matter, it would have been shown in the letters of condolence and consolation which passed between him and Sulpicius on the death of his daughter Tullia. Notwithstanding the mention of her many good qualities, there is no expression of a hope that after death she was living and reaping the fruits of virtue. The question is deeply interesting, and deserves a larger share of attention than Mr. Merivale has here bestowed on it.

It being proved that a future state of rewards and punishments was not believed in by the educated Romans of the times of Cicero, the next question which Mr. Merivale considers is—What were the positive articles of belief of the national religion of which this Cæsar was the high priest or pontiff? Mr. Merivale adduces evidence to prove that they were no more than a belief in the existence of *national* gods, and a providence exercised by them over the State. Personal religion there was none, nor any room for personal piety or private prayer; the individual was absorbed in the State; and through the State only, as the proper channel, received the favours of the gods. The idea at the basis of every such State religion was separation of the State from the rest of mankind. The unity of the human race was a conception as yet unknown. In the states of Greece, as well as at Rome, the invariable distinction was "Greek or Barbarian," "bond or free;" and the same feelings were to be found even in that religion which, established in the Temple of Jerusalem, had its origin in a real Divine revelation. It was reserved for Christianity to teach in its fulness that "God hath made of one blood all nations of man, for to dwell on the face of the earth;" that "God was no respecter of persons;" and that the distinction of even Jew and Gentile should be done away. The religion of Rome was, therefore, in the truest sense, a State religion; and, in reference to other nations, essentially selfish. All the great religious ceremonies, in which the Pontifex Maximus, the augurs, the flamens, and other officials, took part, had reference to the State, and were engaged in either to obtain the assistance of the gods in promoting its continued prosperity, or for help in national adversity. It had no reference to anything beyond the grave. It is thus that Mr. Merivale accounts for St. Paul telling the Athenians, who were ready to mock at the doctrine of a Resurrection, that they were a very religious or "too superstitious" people. They were religious, like the Romans, as to a Providence extending to temporal rewards and punishments, but not as to one reaching to the eternal future.

It will be observed that the mainstay of a State religion of this kind is a belief in tutelary gods, who look on the State with greater favour than they do on other portions of the human family. The gods, then, are essentially, in such a religion, "respecters of persons," and a belief in the unity of the human race is incompatible with it. Hence the need that even the Jew Peter should be taught that God was "no respecter of persons," and that St. Paul should tell the Athenians that He "hath made of one blood all nations of men." . . . "that they should all seek the Lord, if haply they might feel after Him and find Him."

Mr. Merivale next proceeds to point out the circumstances which prepared the way for the reception of Christianity by breaking down this mainstay of the heathen national religion, and promoting and spreading widely a belief in the unity of the human race. The first was the Macedonian conquests under Alexander, which by uniting, though but for a short time, under one sceptre, many nations of the East and West, gave the first impulse to the propagation of this truth. The unity, after Alexander's death, was preserved, in the several monarchies into which his kingdom was resolved, by the remembrance of the victories in which they had their common origin. The next cause which promoted this belief was the spread of the Roman Empire, and the break-down, under the admirable code of laws which Rome gave to the world, of their own exclusive claims to the justice and protection of the gods. This exclusive belief being overthrown, the national religions which rested on it fell to the ground, and an abyss of unbelief succeeded, which the heathen world could not fill up out of its own resources. It was a moment of visible moral darkness; the soul gazed on an absolute blank; there was nothing to believe, and yet it yearned after belief—something to hope for, something to fear. At this critical moment, Christianity interfered, offered to man that which he desired, raised his hopes, quieted his fears, and led him to the altar of truth, where he was glad to take refuge. The educated world now saw what it had long sought for, but could not find.

* The Conversion of the Roman Empire; the Boyle Lectures for the Year 1864. By Charles Merivale, B.D., Rector of Lawford, and Chaplain to the Speaker of the House of Commons. London: Longman, Green, and Co.

They at last had discovered that man has something to hope and live for better and nobler than the rewards of a temporal providence. Christianity was triumphant, and the conversion of the Emperor Constantine completed the victory.

Thus, after fierce and painful struggles, and the patient endurance of the most terrific persecutions, did a handful of faithful disciples of the heaven-sent Teacher of divine truth change the face of the world within the period of four hundred years. The causes inherent in Christianity which promoted this change were the force of the external evidence of Christianity contained in its miracles and fulfilled prophecies; the internal evidence which it found in the human heart from its supplying the only true remedy for spiritual destitution; the weight of the consciousness of sin, pointing out the need of a Sanctifier; and the testimony to its truth from the exemplary lives of its first professors. Lastly, for the multitude no argument was so powerful in carrying home conviction as the temporal success with which Christianity was itself eventually crowned.

THE HISTORY OF MODERN EUROPE.*

It is a task of no ordinary difficulty to write the history of modern Europe in any moderate number of volumes. It is still less easy to give any kind of unity to such a work—to twist together on paper the strands of the separate national stories as they really were twisted together in fact—and, without sacrificing clearness or consecutiveness of narration, to exhibit the bearings of contemporaneous events in many different countries, both upon each other and upon the general history of the Continent. The author who produces anything like a satisfactory book upon a subject of this extensive and complicated description, must possess many of the best qualities of an historian, even although we cannot fairly award to his work a more dignified title than that of compilation. It is simply impossible that he should to any considerable extent consult original authorities; the necessities of space confine his comments within the narrowest limits, and enforce the most rigorous pruning of his style. But there is an ample field and a large demand for the exercise of a critical judgment in dealing with second-hand authorities. Without the power of grasping clearly a multitudinous mass of details, and of selecting from them those which are of cardinal importance, the work would become a mere heap of confusion; and the stress under which a writer is laid to abstain from lengthened explanations or discussions, compels him to study carefully the mode of presenting his facts so that they shall suggest the inferences which he would desire to draw. To do this is no light matter, as any one who has tried it will admit. And therefore, although Mr. Dyer modestly tells us that his book "pretends to be little more than a compilation," and although we cannot honestly differ from his own estimate of it, we have no hesitation in saying that it is a work which reflects great credit upon him, and implies his possession of powers which would have probably enabled him to attempt successfully a more original composition. It is written throughout in a clear and compact style. Sound judgment is shown in fixing upon the events which deserve prominence, and no mean skill in exhibiting their relation. The best authorities, both English and foreign, have been carefully consulted. And, although the history of Europe for the last four centuries bristles with the thorniest points of controversy, both religious and political, Mr. Dyer has preserved throughout a moderation and impartiality of tone which is calculated to inspire confidence in the substantial accuracy of his narrative, and in the honesty with which he has used his materials. There can, we think, be no doubt as to the value of his work, and of its fitness to meet a very general want.

That such a book is very much needed is at once evident, when we recollect that the only compendium of the history of modern Europe which we previously possessed in the English language was that written by Dr. Russell nearly a century ago. That is no doubt a work of very considerable merit, considering the time at which it was written. But it is not nearly so accurate as it might and should have been, even with the materials that were at the disposal of its author. Moreover, since it was published, a new light has been cast upon many of the most important events of European history by the publication of State papers or other documents which had been previously inaccessible. These have been sifted and discussed by many distinguished historians; and, partly as the result of their labours, and partly as a consequence of the advance which has been made in political knowledge and in historical method, the great events and the leading characters of past times present to us by no means the aspect which they did to our forefathers in the last century. There is also this further defect in Dr. Russell's work;—that, of the portion which he himself composed, about half is devoted to the history of England, of course at the expense of foreign countries. Mr. Dyer, on the other hand, thinks—and we quite agree with him—that the purely domestic history of England may well be omitted from a history of modern Europe. It is far better studied in works specially devoted to it; and it is probably safe to assume that his readers have already obtained from these a fair knowledge of the subject. The case is somewhat different in regard to foreign countries. The same amount of previous knowledge cannot be presumed. And, as it is impossible to make the action of continental Powers understood without a general acquaint-

ance with their condition, it is requisite to enter more or less into their domestic history. But this is done in strict subordination to the plan of directing attention chiefly to those events in which the whole European commonwealth, or at least two or more of its members, are interested. To some extent from a desire to keep down the bulk of his work, but mainly in order to preserve a certain unity, Mr. Dyer has not treated of the history of literature, of art, or of civilisation. He remarks with truth that, although Europe has to a certain degree a common civilisation, literature, and art, still these are "marked in each nation by peculiarities which render an account of those subjects proper rather to the histories of its particular states than to one comprising its general affairs." The bond of modern Europe is its policy:—

"The religious unity of Europe which prevailed during the middle ages, as shown by the Crusades, the General Councils, and more permanently by the authority exercised by the Pope as the common father of Christendom, was severed by the Reformation; but already what has been called the European system was arising to supply another bond of union. During the dark ages, the aggressions committed by one state upon another were viewed with indifference by the rest: and thus, for instance, the conquests of the English in France were utterly disregarded in Europe. But when by the destruction of feudalism, the rise of the middle class, the consolidation of the great monarchies, and the institution of standing armies, the various European States were enabled to enter into long and distant wars with one another, the aggressive ambition of one became the common concern of all; leagues and alliances were made to check and repress the domination of grasping monarchs, and to preserve the balance of power; and Europe began to form one large republic of nations, acknowledging the same system of public law, and becoming in their transactions amenable to the voice of international opinion. The history of Europe, in fact, presents as much of unity as that of Greece in early times. Composed of a cluster of independent states, of which one, now Sparta, now Athens, now Thebes, was always aspiring to the hegemony, the only rallying cry of Greece was against the *Barbarian*, as that of Europe once was against the *Infidel*, whilst her sole bond of union was also a religious one, manifested in the Amphictyonic Council and the national games at Olympia and other places, which bear some analogy to the General Councils and the festivals and jubilees of the Roman Church."

In accordance with this view, the work before us may be compendiously described as a political history of Europe.

It is of course impossible to enter into anything like an examination of the four portly volumes of which Mr. Dyer's work consists. Nor would it be of any use to present our readers with any specimens of his workmanship in the shape of extracts. To do so would simply be to repeat the folly of the man who offered a brick as a sample of the house. The merits or demerits of such a book must be judged of according to its plan and general execution. As we have already said, these seem to us excellent. Mr. Dyer shows great discrimination in dealing with character. His opinions on questions of policy and statesmanship are for the most part sound and sagacious. His narrative is not only lucid, but is quite as spirited as could be expected, considering the necessity under which he lay of extreme compression. And, although the same circumstance has confined to an outline his account of the wars which have occupied so large a portion of European history during the late four centuries, his descriptions of military operations are clear and vigorous. The whole of the last volume is devoted to the history of Europe from the commencement of the French revolution, to the close of the Crimean war. We are not aware of one work which, within equally moderate limits, gives an equally satisfactory view of the great convulsion in France, or of the long and gigantic European struggle by which it was followed. In turning over its pages we have hit upon a passage which we cannot resist the temptation to quote at the present time. Those who recollect a celebrated speech delivered by the late Lord Lyndhurst, in the year 1854, will also remember his scathing exposure of the selfish, rapacious, time-serving, and treacherous policy of Prussia, from the foundation of the monarchy to the time at which the noble lord spoke. That was not the first time that similar reproaches had been addressed to the house of Hohenzollern, and it is not likely to be the last. Their conduct during the Revolution was admirably summed up in a despatch written by the Duke de Bassano in reference to the Prussian declaration of war in 1813:—

"All that was worthy of consideration, he observes, in the Prussian note, reduces itself to this. In 1812, Prussia solicited an alliance with France because the French armies were nearer than the Russian to the Prussian States. In 1813, Prussia violates these treaties because the Russian armies are nearer than the French armies. He then goes on to expose the shifts and perfidy of the Prussian Government ever since the French Revolution. In 1792, when France seemed to be on the verge of destruction, Prussia made war upon her. Three years later, when France began to triumph, Prussia abandoned her allies, passed, with Fortune, to the side of the Convention, and was the first of the allied Powers to acknowledge the French Republic. In 1796, after the French reverses in Italy, Prussia again began to veer, but returned to the old point after the defeat of the Russians at Zürich and the English in Holland. In 1805, when France was menaced by Austria and Russia, Prussia concluded with Alexander the Treaty of Berlin, and vowed eternal enmity to France on the ashes of Frederick the Great. Yet six weeks had scarcely elapsed when, after the battle of Austerlitz, Prussia tore up this treaty, abjured the celebrated oath of Potsdam, and betrayed Russia as she had before betrayed France!"

* The History of Modern Europe, from the fall of Constantinople in 1453 to the war in the Crimea in 1857. By Thomas Henry Dyer. In 4 vols. 1861-64. London: Murray.

This is literally true, but it is far from being all that might be said; since it omits all mention of the dishonourable manoeuvres by which Prussia endeavoured to annex Hanover.

We may add in conclusion that the notes to Mr. Dyer's work contain various copious references to the best authorities on each period of which he treats; and that the value of the book is much augmented by an ample and well-executed analytical index.

CAPTAIN GRONOW'S RECOLLECTIONS.*

CAPTAIN GRONOW, in the brief preface to this his third series of *Reminiscences*, expresses a doubt whether the favour extended by the public to his two former volumes may not, by inducing him to spin out another batch of anecdotes, have led to the production of some of inferior quality. "I cannot help fearing," he says, "that amongst my numerous anecdotal progeny there may be some abortions; for it often happens that what is interesting or amusing to ourselves from association fails to amuse others, and I may have noted down reminiscences unworthy of record. But it appears to me that I am very much in the position of some *raconteur* in society whom a friendly party is bent upon making talk on." We are inclined to think that the doubt to which the gallant captain confesses is not altogether without justification, and that the present collection is hardly equal to what has gone before. Yet it contains much that is entertaining too—much that brings back, with great liveliness and force, the characteristics of fashionable society in the last generation, when Beau Brummell was the leader of the polite world, and the manners of the Regency were in the ascendant. The frontispiece to this volume represents a ball of that period,—the scene Almack's, the year 1815. A party of ladies and gentlemen, in mysteriously ugly costumes, are seen executing a dance of some singular description, in which Beau Brummell stands talking to the beautiful Duchess of Rutland, whose dress looks like an inverted fan,—Sir George Warrender, with his legs wide apart, and his head somewhat advanced, seems as if he were preparing to withstand a charge of wild bulls,—Count St. Aldegonde is simply playing with his eye-glass,—and a few other ladies and gentlemen are whirling about in very ungraceful attitudes. It is of the men and women of such scenes that Captain Gronow gossips through these 234 pages; and we see them (much more vividly than in the picture) as they idled through life,—dancing at Almack's, betting at Crockford's, lounging about the West End, "tooling" their four-in-hands from London to Brighton, intriguing at Paris with ladies of easy principles, and crowding the stage of our own Italian Opera, to compliment the singers, and flirt with the fair ones of the *corps de ballet*. Some very amusing anecdotes of French society are given here and there. The following sketch of Fayot, "the champion of the Legitimists," reveals a remarkable state of things:—

"Fayot fought more duels than any man in France. His aim with a pistol was certain; but he was not cruel, and he usually wounded his adversary either in the leg or arm. He was likewise a good swordsman. General Fournier was afraid of Fayot, and only once measured swords with him; while the latter had a horror of Fournier for having killed so many young men belonging to good families. In his rencontre with Fayot, the General was severely wounded in the hand, and ever after Fayot hunted his antagonist from one end of France to the other, determined to put an end to the 'assassin,' as he was called; but the Revolution of 1830 came, and all was chaos.

"Fayot's father was guillotined in the south of France in 1793. His mother, after the severe loss she had sustained in the death of her husband, whom she adored, brought up her son at Avignon, telling him, as he grew up to be a man, to take every opportunity of avenging the death of his father. Upon the restoration of the Bourbons, Fayot came to Paris, where, by his singular manners and dress, he laid himself open to remark and ridicule. In the daytime he was usually dressed in a green coat, white waistcoat and neckcloth, leather pantaloons, and Hessian boots, with his hat on one side. He visited London in 1814, where he bought a tilbury and horse, which he brought to Paris, and in this gig he paraded every day up and down the Boulevards, from the Rue Laffitte to the Place de la Madeleine. His evenings were generally passed either at Tortoni's or Silve's, the respective rendezvous of the Bonapartists and Bourbons. In one or other of these *cafés* Fayot was sure to be found. He publicly gave out that he was ready to measure swords with any one who dared to insinuate anything against the royal family,—a threat sure to bring upon him serious rencontres; but nothing intimidated him. It was reported at the time, and generally believed, that he had, in the short period of two years, fought thirty duels without having been seriously wounded.

"Upon one occasion Fayot repaired to the Théâtre Français to see 'Germanicus;' party spirit then ran high, and any allusion complimentary to the fallen Emperor was received by the Bonapartists with applause. Fayot loudly hissed, and a great uproar arose, when Fayot entered the breach by proclaiming himself the champion of Legitimacy. The consequence was that cards flew about the pit; Fayot carefully picked them up, and placed them in his hat. After the play had terminated he repaired to Tortoni's, where he wrote his address on several pieces of paper, which he distributed all over the Boulevards, stating that he was to be found every morning between the hours of eleven and twelve at the well in the Bois de Boulogne, near Auteuil. Strange to say, after all this row at the theatre, only one antagonist was forthcoming. On the second day, at the hour

appointed, a gentleman arrived with his seconds, who found Fayot in his tilbury, ready for the fight. The name of his antagonist was a Monsieur Harispe, the son of the distinguished Basque General. Pistols were chosen, and at the first discharge Fayot shot his adversary in the knee; then, taking off his hat, he left the ground and proceeded to Paris in his tilbury to breakfast at Tortoni's, where a great many persons had congregated to know the result of this terrible duel."

Here is a good story of the discomfiture of a ruffianly fire-eater:—

"A singular incident occurred at the Café Français in 1816, at the corner of the Rue Laffitte. A celebrated duellist entered and began insulting all the persons who were seated at dinner; he boasted of his courage, and declared his determination to kill a certain M. de F—. A gentleman present, disgusted at such braggart insolence, quietly walked up to this fire-eater, and addressed him thus:—'As you are such a dangerous customer, perhaps you will accommodate me, by being punctual at the entrance of the Bois de Boulogne, near the Porte Maillot, at mid-day to-morrow: earlier I cannot get there, but depend upon my arriving in due time with swords and pistols.' The duellist began to demur, saying he did not know what right a stranger had to take up the cudgels of M. de F—; to which the gentleman replied, 'I have done so because I am anxious to rid society of a dangerous fellow like yourself, and would recommend you before you go to bed to make your will. I will undertake to order your coffin and pay your funeral expenses.' He then gave the waiter a note of 1,000 francs, with the injunction that his orders should be executed before eleven the following day. This had the desired effect of intimidating the bully, who left Paris the following day, and never more was heard of or seen in public."

These regular duellists were often nothing like so courageous as they appeared to be. From two anecdotes related by Captain Gronow, it would seem that it was sometimes the habit with them to pad themselves under their clothes with several sheets of paper; indeed, it was customary with the seconds to feel the principals, in order to detect any such trick, if it had been resorted to. On one occasion, when a German was discovered to have protected himself in this way (as became manifest by the non-effect on him of a pistol-ball), his opponent—the late Admiral de la Susse—kicked him handsomely and to good purpose; after which the German walked off the ground as coolly and unconcerned as if he had distinguished himself in some heroic way. Admiral de la Susse was the first commander-in-chief of the French fleet at the commencement of the Crimean war, but was speedily superseded by Admiral Parseval Deschenes, for having, when off the Piræus, gone on shore to pass a few days with some friends up the country, so that, when orders arrived for the fleet to weigh anchor, he was not to be found for three days—certainly a gross dereliction of duty. Captain Gronow says that the Admiral never recovered his well-merited disgrace, but died a few months after of a broken heart.

The following is very characteristic of the Duke of Wellington:—

"The Duke of Wellington dined frequently with the Prince Regent, who, when he had finished his iced punch and a bottle of sherry, began to be garrulous. The Regent would invariably talk about the battle of Waterloo, and speak of the way in which he had charged the French with the Household Brigade: upon one occasion he was so far gone that he had the temerity to tell the Duke he had completely bowled over the French cavalry commanded by Marshal Ney. This was too much for the Duke to swallow, and he said, 'I have heard you, sir, say so before! but I did not witness this marvellous charge. Your Royal Highness must know that the French cavalry are the best in Europe.'

"At this same dinner Sir Watkyns William Wynn asked the illustrious Duke whether he had a good view of the battle of Waterloo, whereupon the baronet got the following laconic reply, 'I generally like to see what I am about.'"

Captain Gronow gives us some curious particulars of the Duke and his gambling habits when a very young man (he was fond of spending his evenings at Crockford's even long after Waterloo); of the Duke's sagacity and presence of mind, when a major serving under the Duke of York in Flanders, in forming squares of divisions, so as to cover the anticipated retreat of some of our regiments who had advanced rashly into the teeth of the enemy; of the Duke's advice to Sir Stapleton Cotton in the Peninsula, to "hold his cavalry well in hand," and not to commit the ordinary fault of using up his men in wild and useless charges; of the Duke's condescension to himself in giving him full explanations of something which he had been erroneously reported to have said to the captain's disadvantage, concluding his letter by an offer of "satisfaction," if the explanation was not deemed sufficient; of the Duke's objection to the unmilitary habit of some officers of the Grenadier Guards in holding umbrellas over their heads in the face of the enemy in Spain, when rain was falling; and of other features of the great man's life.

We must find room for a sketch of the rise and progress of "Crockford's," since that famous gambling club is now one of the things of the past:—

"In the reign of George IV., a new star rose upon the horizon in the person of Mr. William Crockford; and the old-fashioned games of faro, macao, and lansquenet gave place to the all-devouring thirst for the game of hazard. Crockey, when still a young man, had relinquished the peaceful trade of a fishmonger for a share in a 'hell,' where, with his partner Gye, he managed to win, after a sitting of twenty-four hours, the enormous sum of one hundred thousand pounds from Lords Thanet and Granville, Mr. Ball Hughes, and two other

* *Celebrities of London and Paris; Being a Third Series of Reminiscences and Anecdotes of the Camp, the Court, and the Clubs: containing a Correct Account of the Coup d'Etat.* By Captain R. H. Gronow, formerly of the Grenadier Guards, and M.P. for Stafford. London: Smith, Elder, & Co.

gentleman whose names I do not now remember. With this capital added to his former gains, he built the well-known palace in St. James's-street, where a club was established and play organized on a scale of magnificence and liberality hitherto unknown in Europe.

"One may safely say, without exaggeration, that Crockford won the whole of the ready money of the then existing generation. (?) As is often the case at Lord's Cricket-ground, the great match of the gentlemen of England against the professional players was won by the latter. It was a very hollow thing, and in a few years twelve hundred thousand pounds were swept away by the fortunate fishmonger. He did not, however, die worth more than a sixth part of this vast sum; the difference being swallowed up in various unlucky speculations.

"No one can describe the splendour and excitement of the early days of Crockey. A supper of the most exquisite kind, prepared by the famous Ude, and accompanied by the best wines in the world, together with every luxury of the season, was furnished gratis. The members of this club included all the celebrities of England, from the Duke of Wellington to the youngest ensign of the Guards; and at the gay and festive board, which was constantly replenished from midnight to early dawn, the most brilliant sallies of wit, the most agreeable conversation, the most interesting anecdotes, interspersed with grave political discussions and acute logical reasoning on every conceivable subject, proceeded from the soldiers, scholars, statesmen, poets, and men of pleasure, who, when the 'house was up' and balls and parties at an end, delighted to finish their evening with a little supper and a good deal of hazard at old Crockey's."

One of the most interesting portions of Captain Gronow's book is that which he devotes to the Coup d'Etat of December, 1851, and to the men who aided the Prince-President in effecting it. The author is an enthusiastic admirer of Louis Napoleon, and his account of the celebrated act by which the present Emperor succeeded in consolidating and perpetuating his power is a thorough-going and uncompromising vindication of the man and his policy. Without committing ourselves either to the captain's opinions or his facts, we may briefly sketch what he has to say on a most important crisis of modern history, since it is a good thing to hear both sides of a quarrel, and hitherto, with respect to this particular matter, we in England have received our information, and adopted our views, almost entirely from the Victor Hugos, Louis Blancs, and other representatives of the defeated factions, followed by such writers as Mr. Kinglake, and the Paris correspondents of London newspapers known to be bitterly opposed to the Second Empire. That some exaggerations should have been mixed up with all this fiery and exasperated partisanship, seems inevitable; and it is therefore desirable that we should know what can be urged in defence of Louis Napoleon and his subordinates by an Englishman who was present in Paris during the whole convulsion, who had watched, on the spot itself, all the political developments which led to the event, and who—whether his judgment be mistaken or not—seems to have had no reason for wilfully misrepresenting the facts. In the first place, Captain Gronow refers to the state of anarchy which threatened to ensue as the time for the elections of a new President and Assembly came round, which would have been in 1852:—

"There was every reason to fear that the Red Republicans would make a desperate effort to gain power, even should the streets of Paris again be deluged with blood; indeed, the language of some of their adherents boldly proclaimed that liberty could only be secured by means of the guillotine. In effect, a struggle for power had commenced between the Prince-President and the representatives of the people. The Assembly had refused to grant to the chief of the state the funds necessary to defray the expenses attendant upon his position; it manifested distrust of his ministers, and jealousy of his popularity with the army, of which Changarnier had the command; and so mean were the devices resorted to to annoy Louis Napoleon, that he was compelled to wear at reviews the uniform of a general of the National Guard. A decided opposition was being organized against his re-election; and there is no doubt that his personal liberty was menaced by his opponents, and that, had not the *coup d'état* taken place, his career would have terminated in the fortress of Vincennes. The candidature of the Prince de Joinville for the Presidency of 1852 which was very popular in France, even among the Liberal party, and seemed likely to be successful, disquieted the Bonapartists; and the violent and insolent language of General Changarnier aroused Louis Napoleon to the conviction that the time for action had arrived."

Captain Gronow describes the winning, unaffected manners of Louis Napoleon, his self-possession, his cool judgment, his courage, and his singular power of attaching to himself all who come within the sphere of his influence; and he sees in these qualities a natural fitness for effecting the purpose at which he aimed. The military and civil advisers of the Prince he portrays with almost equal favour; and he asserts that, with one lamentable exception, to be presently described, the revolution was effected with as much gentleness as was possible, considering the necessities of the case. It will be recollected that, on the evening of the 1st of December, the Prince-President had a reception at the Palace of the Elysée, which broke up at eleven o'clock; after which, Louis Napoleon, who had exhibited the utmost carelessness and gaiety of manner during the evening, retired into his private cabinet, accompanied by M. Mocquard (just deceased), the Comte de Morny, M. de Maupas, and General St. Arnaud. Captain Gronow denies the statement of Mr. Kinglake, that the Prince showed perturbation, nervousness, and anxiety of mind, and affirms, on the contrary, that, after making all his arrangements, he quietly retired to rest, giving

orders that he should be awakened at five. Concerning the arrests, Captain Gronow relates a very remarkable anecdote, viz., that—

"General Changarnier was very nearly being made acquainted with the impending events. A young officer whose regiment was stationed at Courbevoie, had come up to Paris to pass the night; he was awoke by his servant, who told him that his presence was required immediately, as his regiment had been suddenly called out. The officer, surprised at this intelligence, and thinking that he ought to acquaint General Changarnier with this unusual order, went to the General's hotel; but finding that the porter was slow in opening the doors, he abandoned his intention and went to his quarters; whence he was obliged to accompany his regiment on the following day to overthrow the authority of General Changarnier and his friends."

The 2nd of December passed quietly; on the 3rd a few barricades were erected, though very feebly defended; but on the 4th M. de Maupas, the Préfet of Police, got alarmed by the reports of his agents, and communicated his fears to the Elysée. Even then, according to Captain Gronow, the orders issued by the Government were, that the utmost consideration should be used in quelling the resistance of the factions. But the troops were fired on by the insurgents; it is said that shots came from the windows of the houses, as well as from the streets; the soldiers lost their heads, or their temper, and, without orders from their officers, fired volley after volley with dreadful effect. This deplorable circumstance is alluded to by Captain Gronow in terms of proper feeling and reprobation; but he denies that either Louis Napoleon or his Ministers had any share in it, and he characterises as monstrous exaggerations the stories that were circulated at the time, and have even been repeated since, about the systematic, prolonged, and deliberate massacres that were ordered and carried into effect during the first few days of the *coup*. He says—

"That the 4th of December was a melancholy day for France, and will long remain remembered by Europe, is not to be denied; but it is neither just nor honest to attribute the lamentable events which then occurred to cold-heartedness on the part of Louis Napoleon. No man ever more deeply deplored them; and where the opportunity offered, he gave what indemnity he could to the families of those who had suffered. There are young persons who lost their parents on that day who have been educated at his expense, the cost being defrayed out of his private purse; and I know myself one instance in which the children have had a regular quarterly stipend paid to them, from their infancy, and which is continued, without interruption or diminution, to this day."

With one more extract, bearing on the vexed question of the personal courage of the French Emperor, we must conclude:—

"On the fourth night after the *coup d'état*, my daughter and myself were present at a ball, given by the Duchess of Hamilton, in honour of the Prince President, at the Hotel Bristol, Place Vendôme. At ten o'clock precisely, the President entered the ball-room, accompanied only by Count Bacciochi, when a quadrille was formed; the Prince dancing with the Duchess of Hamilton, Lady Poltimore and the Duke of Hamilton being the *vis-à-vis*. The second quadrille soon followed; when the Prince chose the Princess Mathilde as his partner, Lord Poltimore and Lady Cowley making the *vis-à-vis*.

"The Prince appeared perfectly cool and collected; he conversed with a great many persons, but more particularly with Lord Cowley, who had only arrived in Paris that morning, to fill his post of British Ambassador. Lords Francis Gordon, Strangford, Halliburton, Ernest Bruce, with their wives, were present; together with many foreigners of distinction. The instant the clock struck twelve, Count Bacciochi, in a low whisper, said that the Prince's carriage was ready; whereupon the Duke of Hamilton, taking two wax-candles, conducted his imperial guest downstairs, and handed him into his plain brougham. On the return of the Duke to the ball-room, he observed to several friends who had collected round, 'How extraordinary! There was neither military nor police in the court-yard of the hotel, to protect the President in case of danger.' In fact, the Prince returned at midnight, without an escort, to the Elysée, in a one-horse brougham."

One thing, we think, is certain—viz., that the individual excesses committed by the soldiery in the heat of contest cannot fairly be charged on Louis Napoleon. If the circumstances of the time justified him in upsetting the Constitution, he was quite right in putting down any attempt at resistance, and he was not on the spot to direct every action of the troops; if he was not justified in his main design, he must be condemned, whether the army behaved with humanity or brutality. This is a point on which the opinions of politicians and historians will be divided for some time yet to come, if they ever finally agree.

MARGARET DENZIL'S HISTORY.*

WHILE "Margaret Denzil's History" was running its course in the numbers of the *Cornhill Magazine*, a variety of surmises were hazarded as to its authorship, generally incorrect, and in one instance strikingly absurd. It was attributed by one gossip to Mr. Charles Allston Collins, and by another to Mrs. Gaskell; a third recognised Miss Thackeray's hand in it; a fourth was positive that it was by Mr. George MacDonald; and some unknown oracle, inspired either by jocoseness or idiocy, proclaimed that it was written by no less dignified a personage than the Queen. The story retains in its completed form the anonymousness which it

* Margaret Denzil's History. Annotated by her Husband. Two Vols. London: Smith & Elder.

preserved throughout its serial existence; but we believe that we need not have any hesitation about inscribing on its titlepage as the author's name that of Mr. Frederick Greenwood. It is strange that he should have thought it necessary to keep up his incognito, for the book is one which no living novelist need be ashamed to avow. It is written with great power; its plot is original, its characters are treated with wonderful skill, and its language deserves very great praise. To express at all in words many of the evanescent feelings and thoughts which are represented as flitting through Margaret Denzil's mind, would have been no easy task; yet Mr. Greenwood has not only succeeded in rendering them articulate, but in many instances he has made their utterance as melodious as it is intelligible. Margaret's inner life is full of poetry, blending with the music which, as she says, is her "interpreter and master," and her language is constantly suggestive of their unison, while her husband's more prosaic nature is excellently typified by his simple and straightforward speech. One great charm of the story is the air of mystery which hangs about it. The book is one which should be read in quiet and seclusion, or much of its weird and dreamy beauty will be lost. There are passages in it which might be lightly passed over by one who met with them in full sunlight, and surrounded by the busy hum of men, although they would exercise a strange fascination over him if he were to read them in the silence of the night. Not that any supernatural agency is introduced into the story; no spirits haunt its scenes, no magic spells are woven about its characters; and yet it affects those who read it aright with somewhat of the pleasant thrill to which a ghost story gives rise, just as, although little mention is made in it of deeds of violence, it produces that sense of unreality in the reader, and of reality in the persons who are depicted before his eyes, which is usually associated in the memory with the perusal of some ghastly chronicle of crime.

Margaret's character is delineated with remarkable delicacy and power. Her's is one of those highly-strung organizations which are over responsive to all outer influences, and on which the discords of life jar too painfully for rest and comfort. Of a thoroughly romantic nature, imagination has more influence over her than reason, and makes her see, whenever she attempts to realize her life, a mere embellished story of her life. Her resolutions are the consequences of impulse rather than of reflection, and after every attempt to regulate her course upon fixed principles, she is obliged to yield herself to the current of events, and drift helplessly along with it. By no means strong-minded, not even strong-willed, she is very trusting and affectionate, with an exquisitely keen appreciation of all that is poetic and beautiful. Such is the girl who, at the commencement of the story, is living with her supposed parents in a cottage against which, she says, all the instincts of her nature revolted—"so formal and heavy, with its walls of dull red brick, its cold slate roof on which no bird ever alighted, and its narrow windows staring like little Malayan eyes without eyebrows." Her chief happiness is to wander about in the neighbouring forest, and there one evening she is roaming "in that state of double consciousness when the senses seem to think for themselves, and to leave the mind to its own indulgences." Down in a quiet pool, girt around by trees, and overshadowed by their branches, she takes it into her head to bathe, and while bathing is nearly drowned. No one who reads the description of her adventure, of the strange ideas which flit across her mind, and of the singular mingling of reality and unreality in what she sees and feels, will be content to lay down the book without making further acquaintance with it. The passage forms in itself a delightful idyll, one which calls up a charming picture before the eye, and lingers musically on the ear. Her accident leads to her becoming adopted by her future husband, who takes her away from the cottage in which she has been brought up, and sends her to school. He is a kindly, true-hearted sailor, whose misfortune it has been to become married to a woman who, without loving him the least, is inordinately jealous of him. He does not venture to tell his wife about the child whom he has adopted, and who, as years pass by, grows into a beautiful girl. But at last Mrs. Denzil makes the discovery for herself, and about the same time her husband finds out that Margaret has become more dear to him than all the world besides. Meanwhile, the girl's quiet life has been troubled by a storm. The son of the mistress of the school in which she lives, falls desperately in love with her, and she is by no means averse to him. Arthur Lamont is a very clever sketch. A thoroughly irresolute character, he is ever drifting about, the sport of circumstances, unable to bear up against adversity, or to turn prosperity to account. He has excellent intentions, but he can never carry them out, and he has numerous good qualities for which he does not get even the credit he deserves. In early life he allows himself to be ruined for the benefit of a false friend, a man of an utterly selfish nature, who had been engaged to his sister Charlotte, but who breaks off the engagement, making the ruin which he had brought upon the brother the excuse for deserting the sister. Charlotte remains constant to the memory of the lover who had treated her so ill, crushing all present enjoyment out of her heart, that she may keep alive her sorrow for his loss, and sacrificing all chances of future happiness on the altar of her unworthy idol. She naturally distrusts her brother, whom she regards as the cause of all her misery, and, when he falls in love with Margaret, she determines to separate him from her. In this she succeeds, for she discovers a secret which her brother would not have Margaret know for any consideration, and forces him to give

up all pretensions to her hand. The scene in which the interview between the brother and sister is described is written with great power, and so is that which succeeds it, in which Margaret, after being called in to hear the result of their discussion, sits in her own room, almost unconscious of what has passed. Poor Arthur Lamont, driven wild by despair, is wandering outside in the darkness of the night, his thoughts bent on death, when suddenly he is arrested by the sound of her voice; for she had found that reflection was out of her power, and she had mechanically gone on with the verses of a hymn, which she was singing when she was summoned to the room where the brother and sister awaited her. And as the sound floats out into the air, his resolution gives way, and he falls sobbing beneath her window. She opens it, and bids him a last farewell, and he disappears for ever. Not till long afterwards does she learn his fate—how he carried everywhere with him a sorrowful recollection of the love he had lost, and how at last he died in a distant land, uttering her name with his last breath.

Margaret falls ill, but recovers, and one day, when health has returned to her, she is surprised by an offer from Mr. Denzil. His wife, he tells her, is dead, and he is free, so he asks her to marry him; and she, "tired of romance, suspicious of sentiment, sober at heart, and very conscious of helplessness," accepts him. "The question was sudden; the answer was as rapid. I did not argue the matter—I scarcely pondered it. It was as if something wiser than myself told me I should marry my kind guardian, and be safe." And so the guardian and the ward are married, and a time of quiet happiness for both of them ensues, he seeming to grow younger and brighter every day, "like a man who comes home to renew his earlier cheerfulness and vigour, after years of travail and privation in some remote, inclement land," and she feeling towards him "a confident, grateful, quiet love—affection without rapture, but not without repose"—perfect content, perfect faith that, surrounded by his care, she would "be kept safe and warm in the midst of a cold and dangerous world."

The first year of married life passes tranquilly away, and when Margaret becomes a mother her happiness appears to her complete; but soon afterwards a shadow falls across her path. The woman whom she used to look upon as her mother, but who, as she now learns, was only her foster-mother, gains access to her house, and, aided by a malicious neighbour, a Dr. Calamy, induces her to suspect her husband. Margaret asks him a question to which he is unable to make a reply, spell-bound by a secret which weighs upon his mind, and she, ever acting on impulse, leaves his house, and, taking her child with her, goes first to Madame Lamont, and then to some friends of that lady in Paris. We need not give an explanation of the mystery in which she and her husband are involved. Time enables Margaret to solve it for herself, and she discovers that she has wronged him, and that she may return to him without misgiving. So she hastens home, full of expectation of the happiness that awaits her there; and, arriving quietly at the well-known house, tells the servant who admits her not to let Mr. Denzil know she has returned, and, stealing to her room, prepares herself to give him a surprise.

"Once upon a time, when my husband stood at the foot of the stairs, and saw me descending in a certain simple new dress, he bawled out in the sing-song manner in which children chant their rhymes, 'Down she came, as white as milk, A rose in her bosom as soft as silk!' I remembered it, and took care to wear the dress. There was no rose to wear, but I could put on a bracelet with his portrait in it; and so I did. 'Why, he'll understand at a glance,' I said, as I viewed myself in a glass, after all these artful preparations were completed; 'for I look—yes, I do look well and glad!'"

The scene which ensues is of a very painful and unpleasant nature; but the skill and power with which it is described give it a grim attraction. Margaret finds Dr. Calamy with her husband, and to her surprise Mr. Denzil appears stupefied at her entrance, not even taking the hand she offers him. She tells him that she has become convinced that she had judged him wrongly, and that she has come back to be happy again with him. But all he answers is "Poor little girl!" and then, while the tears come into his eyes, he turns away from her to the wall. At last, the miserable truth comes out that Mr. Denzil's first wife is still alive, having feigned death in order to satiate her jealous hatred of her husband and of Margaret. Having contrived to delude him into the belief that she had committed suicide, she had disguised herself so successfully that even he could not recognise her, and then, as the pretended Dr. Calamy, indulged in the malicious pleasure of sowing mischief between him and his new bride. And now, with all a maniac's excitement, she revels in the misery she has produced. So ends the History. The last we hear of Margaret is that she living with her boy in seclusion. She has seen her husband once only since that fatal night:—

"We were alone, with our boy upon my knees between us. Poor little Ishmael! he kicked and crowed in evident amusement while we embraced together over him for the last time. For I could not and do not blame his father. I know him to have been honest at least, from first to last. And time may mend all yet: I dare to say I hope so. Without such a hope—(wicked as you please)—we should be already, and in this life, 'portions and parcels of the dreadful past.'"

As to Mr. Denzil, he returns to his old calling as a sailor, after having given up to his first wife the fortune she had brought him, and seen her sail away with it to her former home in Bermuda. He has been severely punished for his fault in first marrying for money,

and then falling in love with a young girl while he was still tied to an old wife. So far, morality is avenged; but some objection may possibly be made to the reader's sympathies being enlisted on the side of a married man's passion for any woman but the one who legally belongs to him. We cannot help pitying Mr. Denzil; but his character, for which the author who invented him is responsible, is open to censure. Margaret's is quite unsullied, and its creation is one of which Mr. Greenwood may well be proud. We shall look forward with great interest to his next work; but we can scarcely hope to find in it as charming a portrait as that of the heroine of the present history.

HIGHLAND SUPERSTITIONS.*

MOUNTAINOUS districts are generally the fruitful mothers of superstition. The savageness of the scenery, the loneliness of the scattered habitations, the want of regular and constant communication with the rest of the world, the primitive ignorance which, protected by this state of isolation, remains in full force, and the readiness to be excited by the marvellous which comes upon the mind in solitude and in the presence of the more stupendous works of nature, combine to render all Highlanders illustrious in this respect. In our own island, the most superstitious races are undoubtedly the Welsh and the people of the mountainous parts of Scotland. In these instances, however, another influence co-operates with the effect produced by the local features of the country. Both races are of Celtic origin; and the Celts, for some reason which it is not very easy to assign, are more prone to superstition than their great rivals, the Teutons. We English, and our German and Scandinavian congeners, are possessed of a very rich popular mythology, and the belief in fairies, elves, and cobbolds was no doubt at one time a real article of faith with many people, as the belief in ghosts is still with not a few. But superstition does not at any time appear to have penetrated so deeply into the Teutonic mind, to have so vividly coloured its ideas, or to have identified itself so thoroughly with the vulgar literature and common traditions of the race, as it has with the various subdivisions of the Celtic stock. We must look to the Scotch Highlands for the marvel of "second sight," to Wales for the ghastly stories of corpse candles and visionary funerals marking out to the appalled seer the path his own coffin is shortly to pursue, and to Ireland for the family Banshee. The more practical ideas of the Teutonic nations, their greater mingling in the active business of life, their success in commerce, politics, and statesmanship, and the more cheerful scenery amongst which, generally speaking, they dwell, have left their minds freer from the cloudy shadows of the spirit-world. The Celt, on the other hand, sits apart among his mountains and woods, brooding over old times and misty records, till he seems hardly to belong to the earth on which he walks.

The superstitions of the Scottish Highlands have been often illustrated ere now. Collins wrote a striking poem about them; Sir Walter Scott has used them in various ways; and they have appeared again and again in works of elaborate fiction, and in the more humble collections of legends current among the peasantry of the North. Mr. Cuthbert Bede, in the present volume, gives us a budget of old traditions (for the most part supernatural) gathered during the past four years from the Gaelic-speaking natives of the district called Cantire—the "Land's End" of that part of Scotland, for such is the meaning of the name. Cantire is a long and narrow peninsula running out from South Argyshire; the country all about is exceedingly wild and gloomy; the people are only just beginning to be affected by the progress of civilization in other parts of the kingdom; and the small islands along the coast are even more savage and weird in their aspect than the mainland. It is not surprising, therefore, that Mr. Bede should have found in this district an ample harvest of strange stories. His book, besides affording some good Christmas reading, has a value of a more solid kind, as perpetuating a set of beliefs which will probably give place in time before the advance of railways and electric telegraphs, newspapers and gas. Some of the narratives here set down are, we think, dull enough, and we cannot see in Mr. Bede's style any special aptitude for relating the grim, the fantastic, and the marvellous, such as causes us to feel a creeping of the skin and a tingling of the nerves as we read, if it be night-time, and the rest of the world in bed. But he is probably an honest chronicler of what he has heard from the lips of shepherds, husbandmen, fishers, and "auld wives," and that is a better quality for the mere preserver of ancient traditions than any amount of literary skill. The following bit about "Fairy Hills" will give the reader some idea of the kind of writing to be found in Mr. Bede's volume, together with other things of a more matter-of-fact kind:—

"The fairy hills mentioned in the preceding story were called Siath-anan, or Siath-dhunan, or more briefly, Si'uns, 'the hill (hillock, or mound) of peace,' and they are supposed to have derived their names from the hillocks to which the Druids were wont to go for purposes of arbitration, which hillocks of peace became thenceforth invested with supernatural virtues. The fairies were also known as the Daoine shee, or 'men of peace,' i. e., 'good fellows,' although a *sheech* free from malevolence and mischief was a great rarity; so much so that they were popularly supposed to be the offspring of the fallen angels, and to have retained no small share of their

ancestral reputation for bad deeds. Their fairy hills were called Tombans and Shian, and were supposed to possess great internal comforts, with doors and windows that could only be discovered on dark evenings by the bright light of the fairy fires shining through the artfully-constructed apertures. The chief fairy hill was known as Tom-na-furich, and formed the rendezvous for the fairy bands on stated occasions.

"The Druids' hills and the fairy hills soon came to mean the same thing. One of these hills was known as Crom-shlia, or 'the hill of bending,' and had probably been a Druidical place of worship, to which ideas of awe had consequently been affixed; and these feelings, in process of time, were transferred and ascribed to the fairies. The magical light that blazed from the fairy hills on dark evenings, was but a reminiscence of the Druil'an, or Druil'anach, 'the flash or flame of the Druids;' and even from the Druidical Siath-dhunan, or 'hill of peace,' which was afterwards a fairy hill, the Samba-thein, or 'fire of peace,' was sent forth from the consecrated flame. And thus the awe that had been inspired at these places by the Druidical ceremonies that were conducted there, lingered for many centuries after those ceremonies had been abolished and forgotten, and the origin of the notions of fairies was then annexed to these mounts, from which the fairies themselves derived their names of Daoine shee, or Sithichean, 'the men of peace,' or 'the men who dwell in the mount of reconciliation.' These mounts were generally situated on the boundaries between different clans and possessions, and probably contributed much to maintain among them peace and good neighbourhood. These 'hills of peace,' in some sort, had their representatives in scriptural times, and bore some similitude to the Fauni, Termini, the Mercurial heaps and pillars, and those of the old Ethiopians and Arabs."

The illustrations to the book are not very powerful. The best is that which figures on the title-page, and again at p. 127, where a monstrous apparition stops a little old woman going over a bridge among wild mountains. This has a good deal of fantastic invention in it; but the frontispiece, representing a ghost, is altogether wanting in proper feeling for the ghostly in the figure, though the landscape is striking.

THE WASPS OF THE OCEAN.*

MR. DALTON has already earned for himself high rank as a writer of tales and romances for boys. He has a special knowledge of China, Japan, Siam, Ceylon, Java, and other parts of the extreme East; and he has embodied that knowledge in many pleasant stories, which must have conveyed to several thousands of young people a larger amount of information respecting the social manners, political systems, and religious creeds of Oriental nations, and the geographical features of the lands they inhabit, than they are likely to find in any other books coming within the range of ordinary juvenile reading. For set descriptions of distant lands, boys generally do not care much; but they are willing enough to read "all about" China, or Siam, or Java, when the facts are set before them in the attractive guise of a story book. Mr. Dalton is possessed of considerable skill in interweaving his facts with his fiction, and we believe that his works are established favourites with the public for which they were written. That he has been a most industrious creator of this species of literature we may gather from the list of ten works, exclusive of this latest production of his pen, which is prefixed to the volume now in our hands. He has fetched a store of wonders out of the wonder-haunted regions of remote Asia; and he now adds to the list this romance of Chinese and Siamese adventure, which, we anticipate, will be found as fascinating to youthful readers during the present Christmas as its predecessors have been in Christmases gone by.

The hero of "The Wasps of the Ocean," and the supposed narrator of the story, is a young gentleman, of about twenty years of age, the son of a Mr. Herbert Richardson, a merchant, settled in the half-Portuguese, half-Chinese city of Macao. The young man's mother (dead before the commencement of the tale) was a native Chinawoman; so that he himself is equally well acquainted with the English and Chinese languages, and, having a knowledge also of the Siamese tongue, is considered the most fitting person to perform a voyage to Bangkok, the capital of the kingdom of "the White Elephant," in order to inquire into the cause of the delay of certain payments due to the house of Richardson, on account of business transactions in that quarter of the globe. Just previous to his departure, he makes the acquaintance of a man, half English, half Yankee, who has been rescued from the clutches of some pirates, and from the suspicion of being one of their confederates, instead of their victim, as he really is. This man—Dick Orme, as he calls himself—is also bound for Siam on urgent business, and he accepts young Richardson's offer of a berth in his vessel. Subsequently, however, some facts transpire, which for a time seem to implicate him in a very serious robbery of his employers, the heads of a commercial firm in San Francisco, California, with whom the house of Richardson has large dealings. He is enabled to clear himself of this imputation, and to show that he is in fact in pursuit of the real culprit. A fast friendship is established between him and young Richardson, and together they make the voyage to Siam, and pass through a multitude of adventures in that strange land, in furtherance of their several objects. The nature of those adventures, and their happy issue, we shall not describe, for fear of spoiling the interest of any of our young readers who may be induced

* The White Wife. With Other Stories, Supernatural, Romantic, and Legendary; Collected and Illustrated by Cuthbert Bede, Author of "Verdant Green," &c. London: Sampson, Low, Son, & Marston.

* The Wasps of the Ocean; or, Little Waif and the Pirate of the Eastern Seas. A Romance of Travel and Adventure in China and Siam. By William Dalton. With Illustrations. London: E. Marlborough.

to get the book itself; nor shall we touch upon the romantic history of the girl, disguised as a boy, whom Dick Orme has with him as a companion, further than by saying that, at the close of the book, she makes a very charming wife for young Richardson. In the course of the narrative, many animated descriptions of Oriental customs are introduced, and the sphere of a boy's knowledge may be considerably increased by perusing this amusing tale. The greatest faults we have to find with the book are on the score of the lax style in which it is written (occasionally made worse by very ignorant printing), and the rather inflated manner in which the characters sometimes express themselves. But boys are not critical, and are very likely to pass over all such errors without observing them. Of the illustrations, we may say that some of the views of places are nicely drawn, but that the figure subjects are feeble and ineffective.

TOSSED ON THE WAVES.*

"TOSSED on the Waves" is a little volume intended, and in some respects calculated, to act beneficially on the minds of that numerous and important class of our population who are just beginning to speculate on their future; who are on the point of quitting school, seminary, academy, collegiate institution, whatever it may be; who are struggling for the prizes in the first class; who are on the verge of entering into apprenticeships, articles, &c., in various occupations and professions; who are, in fact, taking, or about to take, the primary steps in the more serious duties and arduous walks of advanced life. Something of the "muscular Christianity" sect, something of the class of writings belonging to "Tom Brown's School-days," is visible in these pages; in which, as in their more notable prototype, the Christian virtues of patience and long-suffering, and the happy effects (upon an adversary) of "hitting out from the shoulder," are honoured with about equal laudation. The hero of the story, Charlie Harvey, is a youth who, after going through the brief curriculum above hinted at, with like satisfaction to instructors and school-mates, embarks with his father on board an emigrant ship to Australia, to push his fortunes; and, being equally at home in singing psalms and Dibdin's sea-songs, he becomes at once the good genius of the vessel and the favourite of the fore-castle. By his influence and exhortations, the captain and crew happily abandon the habit of profane swearing; the former, and at least one of the latter, becoming, before the end of the voyage, reformed characters.

Several very interesting and thoughtful conversations on serious and spiritual matters are recorded as taking place with various passengers, amongst whom he meets with two, a brother and sister, who afterwards play a leading part in his career, the latter eventually becoming the hero's wife. A storm at sea is vividly depicted, and evidently by one experienced in such visitations. In this storm, Charlie's father, a pious and honourable man, unhappily perishes; but, being prepared for the great change, his son, though deeply afflicted for the time, mourns "not as one without hope." There is, however, some little inconsistency, we think, in representing Charlie, after such a signal and lamentable misfortune, as joining again in the games and songs of the sailors in the fore-castle. The rest of the hero's fortunes are of a chequered cast; but his struggles after competence, and his hopes to attain domestic bliss with the maiden of his choice, are ultimately crowned with success. His protégé Beetlebrow, the former black sheep of the crew, comes into a fortune, and on returning to England marries Charlie's aunt—a somewhat canting old lady, we are grieved to state, she appears to be;—and, after further adventures, such as being wrecked on the coast of New Zealand, the hero and his friends return in safety to Australia.

SHORT NOTICES.

Gutch's Literary and Scientific Register and Almanack for 1865.—There is no other pocket-book which contains so much information as this in so small a space, nor do we know of any in which the matter is, on the whole, so well arranged and condensed. It is, for the most part, very reliable; every year adds to its completeness, and helps to correct some of the errors of its earlier issues. That this is the twenty-fourth annual appearance of the little volume is in itself some criterion of the estimation in which it is held by those who are accustomed to its use. But, carefully as all the materials have been collected, it is still not by any means free from error, and in some classes of information there are important omissions. Under the head of Law, when explaining the number of words which go to a folio amongst lawyers, the figures in Chancery are given correctly enough at 90, but in common law at 27—an evident misprint for 72. Again, in enumerating the ages of living statesmen, whilst including men of lesser mark, all mention of the Lord Chancellor is omitted. Those who make this pocket-book their companion for the coming year may hit upon many such blemishes. The editor invites emendations and suggestions, and we feel persuaded that, considering the study and labour which must have been bestowed in collecting and arranging all this information, no one who can point out a defect will think it too much trouble to do so.

The Temple Anecdotes. Invention and Discovery. By Ralph and Chandos Temple. Illustrated (Groombridge & Sons).—There is nothing very original in this book. It is a collection of anecdotes of

those great inventors and discoverers who, either by their own singular penetration, or by the fortunate conjuncture of circumstances, have hit on novel modes of producing objects of art and science, or of otherwise advancing the comfort and civilization of the world. Many of these stories are well known even to persons whose reading is but small; others, again, are somewhat less hackneyed; but of course no one desirous of really studying the great questions of artistic and mechanical progress would consult such fragmentary narratives for solid information. To youths of an inquiring turn, however, the volume may be found useful as an introduction to more complete and weightier treatises; and for such readers we suppose it is mainly designed. Even older minds will find it amusing as a book for casual reading; and if it should prove capable of whiling away a leisure hour not unprofitably, we suppose the intention of its compilers will be fully answered. The illustrations, engraved by the Brothers Dalziel, are fairly passable, though certainly not above the conventional level.

Lost among the Affghans (Smith, Elder, and Co.)—This singular work, relating the adventures of John Campbell, otherwise Feringhee Bacha, amongst the wild tribes of Central Asia, as delivered by himself to Hubert Oswald Fry, has reached a second edition, the original issue in 1862 having met with great success. It now appears in a handsome volume, adorned with five woodcuts, printed on plate paper, and is well designed to give entertainment to the gatherers round our winter hearths, when the lamps are lit, and a long evening lies before the reader.

The Vicar of Wakefield (Murby).—This is the first issue of a new Shilling Library, to be called "The Entertaining Library." The plan on which it is to be conducted may be judged from the editor's statement that he "assumes the right of adapting the original texts so as to suit his purpose." He will not only omit or qualify expressions such as the more decorous taste of these times might object to, but even holds himself at liberty to alter "grammatical constructions which are too involved and difficult," and to substitute modern words and idioms for "such as have become obsolete, or nearly obsolete." This, we beg leave to think, is giving us classics and water; and we have most assuredly no confidence in an editor who thus deliberately proposes to "dilute largely."

Hymns from the German. Translated by Frances Elizabeth Cox (Rivingtons).—We have here a second edition of a work published some time ago. The collection has been slightly enlarged, and a few of the hymns in the former edition have been replaced by others that were considered of more value. "Many of these," says the translator, "were pointed out as 'national treasures' by the late Baron Bunsen, on whose authority the names and dates of the authors are given, and from whose large collection the hymns, with one exception, are taken." The volume is therefore interesting on literary grounds, as well as on its more proper ground of devotion.

Young England, Vol. III. (Tweedie), is before us. It is a collection of tales and essays for juvenile readers, liberally illustrated with woodcuts.

LITERARY GOSSIP.

UNMISTAKEABLE signs of the approach of Christmas may now be observed in our booksellers' windows; but the issue of tinted guinea quarto books, in gold and bright colours, has this year not been so great as on former occasions. The public are beginning to tire of the same sort of gaudy thing, just as years ago they got tired of engraved "Annals," "Keepsakes," and "Forget Me Nots." The pre-Raphaelite absurdities of many of our best-paid wood-block designers may be debited with this recent revulsion in feeling. Sensible people who do not give themselves critical airs, and who yet can somehow admire true beauty, look with pleasure at the pictures in such old books as the illustrated Rogers's "Italy" and "Poems," or at the engraved designs by MacIise, Haydon, Turner, Stothard, and others, in Alaric A. Watts's tamely written "Lyrics of the Heart." When the art-history of the present age comes to be written, many fashionable designers of the present hour will have much to answer for. The bindings of the new Christmas books have considerably altered from those of last season, when the glazed cloth had passed out, and the "washed," or unvarnished and unstamped, cloth had come into fashion. The cloth that is now most in request is known as the morocco grain. It is admirably adapted for receiving gilt impressions; and Routledge's "Home Thoughts," Blackwood's "Lays of the Scottish Cavaliers," Bentley's "Ingoldsby Legends," and the last issue of the quarto edition of Tennyson's "Poems," illustrated, are amongst the best pieces of workmanship turned forth by the more eminent bookbinders. Illuminated leather bindings, designed after old Grolier, Majolica, and other favourite patterns, have this year come forth in good variety in the larger booksellers' shops. Books for the nursery are not in such abundance as usual; but in former years more were produced than were wanted, so this falling-off is easily accounted for.

Quiet people, not much mixed up with the great company of authors, publishers, and booksellers—who are always busy at this time of the year—may not be aware that Paternoster-row has just issued two trade Catalogues full of charming illustrations, printed on tinted paper, and containing choice selections from the embellishments of a hundred guinea and half-guinea gift-books. The *Publishers' Circular* and the *Bookseller*, the two trade organs, have just put forth their might and strength in the manner indicated, and the public may purchase their splendid efforts for two shillings, viz., one shilling each number. This is altogether a new fashion. Five or six years ago, either the *Bookseller* or its friendly rival bethought itself to insert a few illustrations in its December number. Publishers took the hint, and thenceforward each Christmas issue sought to outvie the preceding with woodcuts and creamy paper. In time, this trade-exhibition may not improbably swell itself to a large volume, and the price be fixed at something considerable; but at present it is within every one's reach, and offers more pictures, and better, for the money, than any other creations of the printing-press which we are acquainted with.

* Tossed on the Waves; a Story of Young Life. By Edwin Hodder, Author of "Memories of New Zealand Life," "The Junior Clerk," &c. London: Jackson, Walford, & Hodder.

The volume of "Family Fairy Tales," edited by Mr. Cholmondeley Pennell, and which was so successful last Christmas, will appear in a few days in the form of a new edition, with the original story of "Little Spider-Face" now for the first time printed, and a fresh drawing from the graceful pencil of Miss Edwards, entitled "The Legend of the Little Flower." Mr. Pennell's new volume of poems, "Crescent?" has, we hear, been very well received by the trade: no bad sign in these days, when booksellers look coldly upon all books of poetry unless they are filled with pictures, or bear the name of one who has already acquired his fame.

A sumptuous illustrated edition of Tennyson's "Enoch Arden" is said to be in preparation by Messrs. Ticknor & Fields, of Boston, U.S. It will be the endeavour of the publishers to make this a model volume of American ornamental bookmaking. The engravings are from original designs by La Farge and Vedder, and are said to be singularly successful attempts to embody the idea of the poet in pictorial sketches. The book is intended as a Christmas gift, so that by this time it has, in all probability, appeared in the "book stores" of Boston and New York. Another illustrated edition of the same poem, with drawings by Hammatt Billings, an American artist of some celebrity, and printed with ornamental type, is announced by a second house.

The preceding paragraph reminds us that a statement went the rounds of the press last week which, unexplained, seems very absurd. It was said that the poet Tennyson was a short time since in London, when he read his own poem of "Maud." A few weeks since, we understand, the Laureate honoured a young poet by dining with him at the Conservative Club, and, after the cloth had been removed, an old schoolfellow and another prevailed upon him to read a few passages from his own poem. Some person appears to have carried a rumour of this to the papers: hence the curious paragraph.

Mr. Thoms, the editor and proprietor of *Notes and Queries*, has just printed, at Messrs. Whittingham's careful press, some "Notelets" on Shakespeare abroad, foreign actors in England, the English drama abroad, and kindred inquiries. Only a very few copies have been printed.

A splendid book has recently been produced in Rio Janeiro under the superintendence of the Emperor of the Brazils. It is a work illustrating the course of the River San Francisco for considerably upwards of 1,000 miles, and would do honour to any country. A copy has been forwarded for the acceptance of our Royal Geographical Society; only four copies of the volume have been allotted for Europe, and the first of these to the society mentioned. It may be presumed that the day is not far distant when friendly relations between the two countries will be resumed. The Emperor devotes particular attention to geographical science, and it is said that another work is in progress under his immediate attention and supervision.

The action brought by the representatives of Rouget de l'Isle against M. Fétis, on the charge that he libelled the author of the "Marseillaise," is still progressing in Paris. A correspondent, speaking of this, remarks that "the French libel laws make the historian's path a very thorny one. I do not know for how many generations the right exists to defend in a court of law a dead man's character; and it is commonly believed that there is no limitation to it. General Grouchy, just before he died, was taking steps to bring an action against M. Thiers for a libel on the Marshal, his father. The relations of Charlotte Corday, Royalists as they were, protected the reputation of that most sublime fanatic of the Revolution by means of those articles in the Code relative to a calumny which can, without great difficulty, be brought to bear on an unjust accuser."

At an auction, recently held in Paris, a pen-and-ink sketch, by Victor Hugo, realized 186*fr.* A pencil likeness of the Count de Chambord, by himself, and bearing his signature, brought 500*fr.*

The demand for Lord Derby's translation of "Homer" is so great that very few of the booksellers can get supplied. We hear that the book has already been reprinted. At Mr. Murray's sale, the confidence of the trade was but small—in fact, only some 800 copies were sold; but a large demand from the public has since set in.

The new evening newspaper which we announced as in preparation a short time since, will, we believe, shortly be issued. Its title will be the *Glowworm*, and it is intended to give the news of London society rather than the politics of the country and our relations with the rest of the world. A prominent feature will be the programmes of the different places of amusement, and the first place will be given to the theatres—the performances of which will be set forth in such a manner that the ordinary vulgar playbill may be dispensed with; and from this source alone a considerable income, it is expected, will be derived. The direction of the paper will be in the hands of the company who are starting it, and a sufficient capital is said to have been already subscribed.

The Rev. C. H. Spurgeon (or Mr. Spurgeon, as he now prefers to style himself) will start a new Monthly Magazine, entitled *The Sword and the Trowel: a Record of Combat with Sin and Labour for the Lord*, on the 1st January. It is said that the Magazine will contain articles of general interest, and an account of the progress made by the numerous churches started by Mr. Spurgeon, or by the church over which he is pastor. Rumour further says it is the intention of the rev. gentleman to compile a new hymn-book.

Speaking of Mr. Spurgeon, we are reminded that the sermon on Baptismal Regeneration, which has recently made such a stir in religious circles, has reached the enormous sale of 200,000 copies.

No less than 16,000 copies of the "Globe" edition of Shakespeare have been subscribed to the trade by the Messrs. Macmillan. In order to supply this great number at one time, the bookbinders have been kept hard at work for nearly three weeks. Copies were delivered to the trade last Wednesday. It should be stated that this is not simply a reprint of the dramatic works, but includes the poems also, with an elaborate glossary at the end.

Messrs. HURST & BLACKETT announce the following among their works in preparation:—"A Journey from London to Persepolis, including Wanderings in the Caucasus, Georgia, Daghestan, Armenia, and Persia," &c., by J. Ussher, F.R.G.S., roy. 8vo., with numerous

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"La Banque de France, et l'Organisation du Crédit en France," is the title of a pamphlet by Isaac Pereire, which appeared last week at DENTU's, and the first edition of which was exhausted on the first day of publication.

HACHETTE & Co. have brought out an elegant volume, entitled "Le Ciel, Notions d'Astronomie à l'Usage des Gens du Monde et de la Jeunesse."

"La Princesse de Lambelle, sa Vie, sa Mort," is the name of a work which has been a great success in Paris.

"Réveries Maternelles" is the title of a charming little volume just published by PLON, on the maternal education of young children.

LIST OF NEW PUBLICATIONS FOR THE WEEK.

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